VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK IV.

THE SOUTH-WEST OF EUROPE——————UNITED PROVINCES, AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, FRANCE, SPAIN, PORTUGAL, SWITZERLAND, ITALY, CORSICA, SARDINIA, SICILY, MALTA.

CHAPTER I.

THE SOUTH-WEST OF EUROPE——*Geographical description.*

THE countries we have here enumerated as the subjects of this book, are brought by a variety of circumstances into one field of view. In remote ages such of them as are situated on the continent, were either possessed by the Gauls as their undisputed property, or exposed to the ravages of those restless barbarians. In the succeeding ages, they composed the most essential parts of the Western Roman Empire, and they are now reduced to a state of real subjection to the successful Napoleon.

In taking our survey of these extensive and fertile regions, we shall adhere to that nomenclature which was used previously to the late violent changes; judging it sufficient to record the geographical innovations in a more advanced stage of the present work.

The tract which, extending from the 50° to 53½° of N. Lat. and from the 2° to 7° of E. Lon. from London, is bounded by Germany, France, and the German Ocean, has obtained from its low situation the general appellation of the Netherlands. It is visited during January and February by dry easterly winds, which add much to the healthfulness of the climate; but at the same time increase the rigour of the winter. At this season the ports, rivers, and canals are generally frozen so as to obstruct all inland navigation; but afford safe travelling for the inhabitants on the ice.

The United Provinces consist of seven out of the 17 into which this country is divided; their names are Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Utretcht, Overyssel, Guelderland, and Groningen; to which were subject part of Brabant and of Flanders. These provinces are sometimes denominated Holland.

HOLLAND.

Holland is bounded on the west by the German Ocean; on the north by the Zuydersee; on the east by that arm of the sea, by Utrecht and Guelderland; and on the south by Dutch Brabant and Zealand.

Its greatest extent from north to south, including the island of Texel, is about 90 English miles; but from east to west its extent varies from 40 to 48. Immense expence has been incurred in erecting of dykes to defend this country against the sea; and in digging innumerable canals to drain the marshes, and extend the benefits of inland navigation. The rich pastures of Holland maintain vast herds of cattle, which furnish the inhabitants with abundance of butter, and of that excellent cheese which is exported from Edom and Gouda. No country surpasses and few equal the cleanliness of Holland, even in the villages. The principal places are Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Leyden, and that celebrated village the Hague.

Amsterdam, the capital city of the province of Holland, and of the United Netherlands, is seated on the river Amstel and an arm of the sea called Wye. The air is but indifferent on account of the marshes that surround it, and render the city almost inaccessible: but this inconvenience is abundantly recompensed by the utility of its commerce, which the port serves greatly to promote; for it will contain above 1000 large ships.

In 1204, it was nothing but a small castle, called Amstel from the name of the river, which its lords made a retreat for fishermen, who at first lived in huts covered with thatch; but it soon became considerable, and had a bridge of towers built about it, insomuch that it rose to a small city; though, till the year 1490, it was surrounded with nothing but a weak pallisado. The walls were then built with brick, to defend it from the incursions of the inhabitants of Utrecht, with whom the Hollanders were often quarrelling; but some months afterwards it was almost reduced to ashes. In 1512, it was besieged by the people of Guelderland; who, not being able to take it, set fire to the ships in the harbour. In 1525, an anabaptist leader, with 600 of his followers, got into the city in the night-time, attacked the town-house, and defeated those that made any resistance. At length they barricaded, with wool and hop-sacks, the avenues to the market-place, where the enthusiasts were posted; and so put a stop to their fury till day appeared, at which time the citizens fell upon them on all sides, and forced them to retire into the town-house, where most of them were cut to pieces. About ten years after, there was another tumult raised by a parcel of fanatics, consisting of men and women, who ran about the streets stark naked, and had a design of making themselves masters of the town-house. Their shrieks and cries, which were dreadful enough, soon alarmed the inhabitants, who seized the greatest part of them, and gave them the chastisement they deserved.

Amsterdam was one of the last cities that embraced the reformed religion. It was

The SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES from the best AUTHORITIES
British Statute Miles.
Dutch Miles.
GERMAN OCEAN
THE BROAD FOURTEENS
GERMANY
EAST FRIESLAND
GRONINGEN
FRIESLAND
OVERYSSEL
GELDERS
UTRECHT
ZUYDER ZEE
WEST FRIESLAND
AMSTERDAM
Leeuwarden
Groningen
Embden
Deventer
Zutphen
Nimeguen
Boisleduc
Breda
Bergen op Zoom
Rotterdam
Mouth of the Mar
Rhine R.
Leyden
the Hague
Stuven
Duiveland
East Scheld
Middleburg
West Scheld
Ostend
Bruges
ANTWERP
Gelders
Venlo
Dusseldorf
Munster
Maestricht
LIEGE
DUTCH LIMBURG
DUTCH BRABANT
DUTCH FLANDERS
Longitude East from London

besieged by the Hollanders in 1578, and submitted after a siege of ten months. One article of the capitulation was, a free exercise of the Roman catholic religion; but this was not observed by the protestants; for they soon drove the ecclesiastics, monks, and nuns, out of the city, broke the images, and demolished the altars. From this time it became the general rendezvous of all nations, and of every sect, which raised it to that degree of grandeur and opulence it now enjoys. The inhabitants were often obliged to enlarge the bounds of their city, and in 1675, it was increased to its present extent. It was surrounded with a brick wall, and a large ditch 80 feet broad, full of running water. The walls were fortified with 26 bastions, on each of which there is now a wind-mill. There are eight gates towards the land, and one towards the water.

Amsterdam being seated on a marshy soil, is built on piles of wood; for which reason no coaches are allowed, except to great men and physicians, who pay a tax for that privilege; and all kinds of goods are drawn on sledges. It stands so low, that they would be exposed to inundations, if they did not secure themselves by dikes and sluices. The finest streets are, the Keysar's Graft, or Emperor's Canal; the Heer Graft, or Lord's Canal; the Cingel; and the streets of Haarlem. The principal canal is remarkable for its houses, which are magnificent structures of an equal height. Here are three prodigious sluices, and a great number of canals, which cross the city in many parts, and render the streets clean and pleasant. The canals are deep, their sides are lined with hown stone, they have generally rows of trees planted on each side, and many stone bridges over different parts of them.

The finest is that called the Amarack, which is formed by the waters of the Amstel, into which the tide comes up, and on the sides of which are two large quays. This canal has several bridges. The principal is that next the sea, called Pont-Neuf, or the New Bridge; and is 600 feet long, and 70 broad, with iron balustradoes on each side; it has 36 arches, of which 11 are very high, and eight are shut up to inclose the yachts. From this bridge there is a most charming prospect of the city, port, and sea. The port is a mile and half in length, and above 1000 paces in breadth. It is always filled with a multitude of vessels, which look like a forest, or rather a floating city. The streets in general are well paved, and the houses built of brick and stone. Towards the sides of the haven, the city is enclosed with great poles driven into the ground, which are joined by large beams horizontally. There are openings to let the ships in and out, which are shut every night at the ringing of a bell.

Amsterdam is computed to be half as big as London, including the fortifications, and almost as populous in proportion. There are people here of almost every nation and religion in Europe, who are all tolerated in their respective persuasions; but none admitted to any share in the government except the Calvinists. There are 11 churches for the Dutch of the established or Calvinistical religion, with two French and one high Dutch. The English have also three churches in this city; one for the Presbyterians, whose ministers were paid by the magistrates; a second for those of the church of England, whose minister was paid by his Britannic majesty; and a third for the Brownists, who maintain their own ministers. None but the Calvinists are allowed to have bells,

and their ministers are maintained by the magistrates. All these churches or congregations make up only a third part of the inhabitants of the city. The Roman Catholics, who have 27 houses or chapels for their worship, form another third part. Here they have a long square of houses for their beguines (a kind of nuns) to live in; who are not shut up in cloisters as other nuns in Roman Catholic countries, but have liberty to walk abroad, and may even marry when they are tired of this kind of life. These chapels of the Roman Catholics have no bells allowed them, being looked upon as conventicles, and may be shut up and opened as the government pleases. The other third part of the city is made up of Jews, Lutherans, Arminians, Anabaptists, &c. none of whom, as was said of the Roman catholics, are allowed to have bells in their churches. Those who marry, and are not of the established religion, are obliged to be joined first by the magistrates, and then they may perform the ceremony in their own assemblies. The Jews, who are very considerable in this place, have two synagogues; one of which, namely the Portuguese, is the largest in Europe. Within the court-yard, where their synagogue stands, they have several rooms or schools, where their children are taught Hebrew, and very carefully instructed the Jewish religion.

The most remarkable of the religious buildings is the New Church, dedicated to St. Catharine. It was begun in the year 1408, others say 1414; and 100 years in building. It had the misfortune of being burnt in the year 1645, but was in a short time after built in a more magnificent manner. The foundation of a steeple is laid before this church, which was designed to be very high. The piles on which it was to be erected are not above 100 feet square, and yet they are 6334 in number, and those very large. Nevertheless it was thought that these vast piles, or rather the ground, was not able to support the prodigious weight they pretended to lay upon it; for which reason the steeple remains unfinished. The pulpit is a master-piece of the kind, where the four evangelists, and many other pieces of sculpture, are represented. The glass windows are adorned with paintings, among which the emperor Maximilian is described, presenting an imperial crown to the burgomasters of Amsterdam for the crest of the arms of this city. The organ is very large, and reckoned one of the best in the world. It has a set of pipes that counterfeit a chorus of voices, and has 52 whole stops besides half stops, with two rows of keys for the feet, and three rows of keys for the hands. Those who hear it play for the first time imagine they hear a human voice. The grate dividing the chancel from the body of the church is all of Corinthian brass. The branches of the candlesticks are the richest in the seven Provinces. There is a very fine marble monument erected to admiral De Ruyter, who was killed at Messina.

The public buildings of a civil nature are very magnificent. The stadt-house was founded in 1648. It is built upon 14,000 wooden piles; and its front is 282 feet long, its sides 255 feet, and its height to the roof 116. There is a marble pediment in the front whereon a woman is carved in relievo, holding the arms of the city; she is seated in a chair supported by two lions, with an olive branch in her right hand; on each side are four Naiads, who present her with a crown of palm and laurel, and two other

marine goddesses present her with different sorts of fruit; besides, there is Neptune with his trident, accompanied with Tritons, a sea-unicorn, and a sea-horse. On the top stands three statues in bronze, representing Justice, Strength, and Plenty. On the top of the structure is a round tower, 50 feet above the roof, adorned with statues, and an harmonious chime of bells, the biggest of which weighs 7000 pounds, and the next 6000. They are made to play different tunes every month. It has not one handsome gate, but only seven doors to answer to the number of the United Provinces. On the floor of the great hall are two globes, the celestial and terrestrial, which are 22 feet in diameter and 69 in circumference. They are made of black and white marble, and are inlaid with Jasper and copper. In general all the chambers are enriched with paintings, carvings, and gildings. While the stadt-house was building, the old one was set on fire, and consumed with all the archives and registers.

Under the stadt-house is a prodigious vault, wherein is kept the bank of Amsterdam, where there is a vast quantity of ingots both of gold and silver, as also bags, which are supposed to be full of money. The doors are proof against petards, and are never opened but in the presence of one of the burgomasters. The prisons for debtors and criminals are likewise under the stadt-house; as also the guard-room for the citizens, wherein the keys of the city are locked every night. At the end of the great hall are the schepens or alderman's chambers of the senate and council, the burgomaster's chambers, and chambers of accounts, &c. In the second story is a large magazine of arms; and on the top of the building are six large cisterns of water, which may be conveyed to any room in the house in case of fire; to prevent which their chimneys are lined with copper.

The bourse, or exchange, where the merchants assemble, is all of free-stone, and built upon 2000 wooden piles. Its length is about 250 feet, and its breadth 140. The galleries are supported by 26 marble columns, upon each of which are the names of the people that are to meet there. They are all numbered; and there is a place fixed for every merchandise under some one of these numbers. On the right hand of the gate is a superb stair-case which leads to the galleries, on one side of which there are several shops, on the other a place to sell clothes. It is not unlike the royal exchange in London.

The admiralty office is in a house which belonged formerly to the princes of Orange. The arsenal for the men of war is in the harbour. This is a very handsome building, 200 feet long and 22 broad. The ground floor is filled with bullets; the second floor contains the arms and cordage; the third their sails, pulleys, flags, &c. This arsenal contains a great many curiosities; among the rest an Indian canoe brought from the straits of Davies, and a conservatory of water on the top of the house that holds 1600 tuns of water, which may be distributed in case of fire into 16 different parts by leaden pipes. Hard by this edifice you see the dock or yard where they build their men of war. This dock is 508 feet long, and contiguous to it are houses for lodging the ship-carpenters. The dock is plentifully supplied with every thing necessary for the construction of ships.

The East India Company occupy a large building divided into several offices or apart-

ments; in some of those they have great stores of packed goods, and likewise a room with all sorts of drugs, tea, wax, ambergris, and musk. Here they have a magazine full of medicaments for surgeons' chests, to furnish the company's ships and garrisons in the Indies; as also large magazines of nutmegs, cloves, mace, and cinnamon. In the court-yard there is a guard-chamber, where every night the housekeeper has a watch; and on the other side of the gate there is a chemist, who with his men prepare medicines for the Indies; and adjoining to this court-yard is their warehouse and pack-house for pepper and gross goods. In the new part of this city they have a magazine or palace, which may properly be called an arsenal. The ground on which this building stands, is 2000 feet, and square every way, reckoning the moats or burgwall about it. The two rope alleys are 1800 feet long, on the back side of which is a store of 500 large anchors besides small ones. In this arsenal they build the ships belonging to the India chamber of Amsterdam; for which reason they have all sorts of workhouses here for the artificers that serve the company.

The academy called the Illustrious School is likewise a very fine building. It was formerly a convent belonging to the nuns of St. Agnes. Here they teach Latin, the oriental languages, theology, philosophy, history, &c. The lawyers and physicians have likewise their schools.

Besides these, there are several hospitals, or houses for orphans, for poor widows, for sick persons, and for mad people; all which are regulated with much prudence. The rasp-house, which was formerly a nunnery, is now a sort of workhouse for men that behave ill. They are commonly set to saw or rasp Brasil wood; and if they will not perform their task, they are put into a cellar which the water runs into, where if they do not almost constantly ply the pump, they run the risk of being drowned. There is likewise a spin-house for debauched women, where they are obliged to spin wool, flax, and hemp, and do other work.

All the hospitals are extremely neat, and richly adorned with pictures. They are maintained partly by voluntary contributions, which are raised by putting money into the poors' boxes fixed up all over the city; and partly by taxing all public diversions, as well at fairs as elsewhere. Likewise every person that passes through any of the gates at candle-light pays a penny for the same uses. These charities are taken care of by certain officers called deacons. The governors are nominated by the magistrates out of the most considerable men in city.

The common sort have places of diversion called Spiel-houses, where there are music and dancing. They are much of the same kind as the hops which were so frequently about London.

There are two suburbs to this city; one at the gate of the regulars; and the other goes as far as Overton, a village a little way from Amsterdam, where boats which come from Leyden are rolled over land upon wooden rollers. There is likewise in this city an hospital for those that are infected with the plague; which was built in the year 1630, and has 360 windows.

The city is governed by a senate or council, which consists of 36 persons, called a

Vroedshap, who enjoy their places for life; and when any of them dies, the remainder choose another in his stead. The senate elects deputies to be sent to the states of Holland, and appoints the chief magistrates of the city, called Burgomasters or Echevins, who are like our aldermen. The number is 12; out of which four are chosen every year to execute the office, and are called burgomasters regent. Three of these are discharged every year, to make room for three others. One of the four is kept in to inform the new ones of the state of affairs, and also presides the first three months in the year, and the others three months each; so that when they are in this office they may be compared to lord-mayor of the city of London. These alterations and appointments are made by their own body. They dispose of all inferior offices which become vacant during their regency. They have likewise the direction of all public works, which regard the safety, tranquillity, and embellishment of the city. The keys of the famous bank of this city are in the hands of these magistrates.

The college consists of new burgomasters or echevins, who are judges in all criminal affairs, without appeal; but in civil causes they may appeal to the council of the province. There are two treasurers, a bailiff, and a pensionary. The bailiff continues in his office three years; and searches after criminals, takes care to prosecute them, and sees their sentence executed. The pensionary is the minister of the magistracy, is well versed in the laws, makes public harangues, and is the defender of the interests of the city. The city of Amsterdam contributes to the public income above 50,000 livres per day, besides the excise of beer, flesh, and corn: which in all amounts to 1,600,000*l.* a-year. This is more than is paid by all the rest of the provinces put together; and yet Amsterdam bears but the fifth rank in the assembly of the states of Holland, with this distinction, that whereas other cities send two members, this sends four.

The militia of Amsterdam is very considerable. They have 60 companies, each of which has from 200 to 300 men. Jews and anabaptists are excluded from this service, not being admitted to bear arms. But they are obliged to contribute to the maintenance of the city-guard, which consists of 1400 soldiers; as also to the night-watch, who patrole about the streets, and proclaim the hour. Besides these, there are trumpeters on every church steeple, who sound every half hour, and if there happens a fire, they ring the fire-bell, and shew where it is. The inhabitants have excellent contrivances to extinguish it speedily.

The trade of Amsterdam is prodigious; for almost the whole trade of the East India company centres in this city, which besides carries on a commerce with all the rest of the world, insomuch that it may be called the magazine or store-house of Europe. They import a vast deal of corn from the Baltic, not so much for present consumption, as to lay up against times of scarcity. The richest spices are entirely in the hands of the East India company, who furnish all Europe therewith. They have vast quantities of military stores, with which they supply several nations; which is owing to their engrossing most of the iron works on the Rhine and other great rivers that run into Holland. The longitude of Amsterdam is 4° 30′ E; the latitude 52° 25′ N.

Rotterdam is not reckoned one of the principal cities of the province, because it has not been always in its present flourishing condition. The Dutch call it the first of the second rank, whereas it ought to be esteemed the second of the first, being next to Amsterdam, the most trading town in the United Provinces. Its port is very commodious; for the canals which run through most parts of the town, bring, the ships, some of 200 or 300 ton, up to the merchant's door; a conveniency for loading and unloading which is not to be found in other places. The great ships go up into the middle of the town by the canal into which the Maese enters by the old head, as it comes out by the new.

A stranger, upon first his entering this place, is astonished at the beautiful confusion of chimneys intermixing with the tops of trees with which the canals are planted, and streamers of vessels; insomuch that he can hardly tell whether it be fleet, city, or forest. The Harring Vliet is a fine street; most of the houses are new, and built of hewn stone; but the grandest as well as the most agreeable street in Rotterdam is the Bomb Quay, which lies parallel with the Maese; on one side it is open to the river, and the other is ornamented with a grand facade of the best houses in the city, inhabited chiefly by the English; they are five or six stories high, massy and very clumsy; whenever there is any attempt at ornament, it is the worst that can be conceived. One sees no Grecian architecture, except Doric entablatures, stuck upon the top of the upper story, without pilasters; Ionic volutes, turned often the wrong way, and an attempt at Corinthian capitals, without any other part of the order. The doors are large, and stuck with great knobs and clumsy carving; you ascend to them, not in front but by three or four steps going up on each side, and you are assisted by iron rails of a most immense thickness. These houses are almost all window; and the window shutters and frames being painted green, the glass has all a green cast, which is helped by the reflection from the trees that overshadow their houses; which, were it not for this circumstance, would be intolerably hot, from their vicinity to the canals. Most of the houses having looking-glasses placed on the outsides of the windows on both sides, in order that they may see every thing which passes up and down the street. The staircases are narrow, steep, and come down almost to the door. In general, the houses rise with enormous steep roofs, turning the gable end to the street, and leaning considerably forward, so that the top projects often near two feet beyond the perpendicular.

This port is much more frequented by the British merchants than Amsterdam; insomuch that, after a frost, when the sea is open, sometimes 300 sail of British vessels sail out of the harbour at once. There is a large number of British subjects who reside in this town, and live much in the same manner as in Great Britain. The reason of the great traffic between this place and England, is because the ships can generally load and unload, and return to England from Rotterdam, before a ship can get clear from Amsterdam and the Texel. Hence the English merchants find it cheaper and more commodious after their goods are arrived at Rotterdam, to send them in

boats over the canals to Amsterdam. Another great advantage they have here for commerce is, that the Maese is open, and the passage free from ice, much sooner in the spring than in the Y and Zuyder-Zee, which leads to Amsterdam.

Leyden, in latin Lugdunum Batavorum, one of the largest and finest cities in Holland, abounds with canals, along which are rows of lofty trees that afford very pleasant walks. An arm or very small branch of the Rhine runs through it. Over the canals are 145 bridges, most of them of stone and brick. The university here is the oldest in the United Provinces: it has large privileges; a library well furnished, and particularly rich in manuscripts; a physic garden well stocked with all sorts of plants, many of which have been brought from the Cape of Good Hope and the East Indies; an anatomy-hall, well provided with skeletons, and an observatory. The professors, who are generally very eminent, read public lectures four times a week, for which they take no money, but about three guineas are paid for a course of private lectures, which lasts a whole year. The students have no distinct habit, but all wear swords, though they generally go to the public and private lectures in their night-gowns and slippers. The salaries of the professors are from 100 to 200*l.* a-year: they wear gowns only when they preside at public disputations, read public lectures, or meet the senate; and their lectures are always in latin. The students do not lodge in the university, but where they please in the town. The cloth manufactory here is much decayed, which formerly flourished to such a degree, that 100,000 pieces, it is said, have sometimes been made in a year.

The Hague, though it sends no deputies to the states, is one of the most considerable towns in Holland; pleasantly situated, and exceeding beautiful. It may indeed compare with any city in Europe, though geographers account it but a village. The inhabitants also breathe a better air than those of other cities, as it stands on a dry soil, somewhat higher than the rest of the country. It has no gates or walls, but is surrounded by a moat, over which there are many draw-bridges. Two hours are required to walk round it, and it contains about 40 or 50,000 souls. It is a place of much splendor and business, being the seat of the high colleges of the republic and province of Holland, and the residence of the stadtholder and foreign ambassadors; and there are a great many fine streets and squares in it. In the inner court all the high colleges and courts of justice hold their assemblies; there also the foot-guards do duty, as the horse-guards in the outer, when the states are sitting.

Haarlem is a large and populous city, and stands on the lake of the same name, with which it has a communication, as well as with Amsterdam and Leyden by means of several canals. Schemes have been often formed for draining this lake, but were never put in execution. To the south of the town lies a wood, cut into delightful walks and vistas. The town is famous for the siege which it held out against the Spaniards for ten months in 1573; the townsmen before they capitulated being reduced to eat the vilest animals, and even leather and grass. The inhabitants corresponded with the prince of Orange for a considerable time by means of carrier-pigeons. Haarlem, as is well known, claims the invention of printing; and in fact the first essays of the art are

indisputably to be attributed to Laurentius, a magistrate of that city. Before the reformation, Haarlem was a bishop's see; and the papists still greatly outnumber the protestants. An academy of sciences was founded here in 1752. Vast quantities of linen and thread are bleached here; the waters of the lake having a peculiar quality, which renders them very fit for that purpose. A sort of phrensy with regard to flowers, particularly tulips, once prevailed here, in consequence of which the most beautiful sorts were bought and sold at an extravagant price.

Texel is a town in the northern division of Holland, with a good harbour, and a strong fort. It is seated in a fruitful island, known all over the world by the number of ships that pass this way every day from all parts. The island is about six miles long and five broad, and lies a little northward of the continent of Holland, between which and the island is one of the principal passages of the Zuyder Zee into the ocean. It is defended from the sea by sand hills, and strong banks.

The province of Zealand consists of eight islands which lie in the mouth of the river Scheld, are washed on the west by the ocean, and separated by narrow channels from Holland, Brabant, and Flanders. The chief city is Middleburg, in the island of Wilcheren.

Groningen, the most northerly of the United Provinces, has the German Ocean on the north, Germany on the east, Overyssel on the south, and Friesland on the west. Its widest dimensions do not exceed 50 miles, but it contains, within that narrow compass, large herds of cattle, abundance of fish, and of turf, besides considerable forests and portions of corn land. The capital of the province is the town of Groningen, which is situated about 12 miles from the nearest shore of the German ocean, at the conflux of several rivulets. Ships of considerable burden come up to the city, in consequence of which it enjoys a pretty good trade. It was formerly very strong; but its fortifications are now much neglected. The university, which was founded in 1615, is well endowed out of the revenues of the antient monasteries. The town is large and populous, and contains many fine buildings both public and private.

Friesland is a smaller province than Groningen, but affords, like that, a large supply of the necessaries of life. The land is fertile in corn and pasture; the houses are large, and cows and sheep prolific. The principal towns are Leuwanden, the capital, Franeker, Doccum, Harlinger, and Staveren.

Overyssel is more barren. Its greatest riches consist in turfs which are dug up here, and sent to the neighbouring provinces, particularly Holland. The whole country is low and marshy; but it produces a tolerable quantity of corn. Its name is derived from its situation, beyond the Yssel, a river which divides it from Guelderland. Deventer, the capital, is a large strong trading town with a university.

Utretcht, on which Overyssel was formerly dependent, is wholly surrounded by Holland and Guelderland, excepting a small part of it that borders on the Zuyder Zee. It enjoys a good air, and in most places the soil is fruitful; but on some sandy, or what is called turf ground, and others over-run with wood. Utretcht, its capital, is a fair, large, an populous city. Here is a stately town-house, a commandery of the Teu-

tonic order, and a university that has flourished greatly, though entirely subject to the magistrates of the city.

The streams which run through several of the streets, contribute much to the beauty and cleanliness of the town; and the canal that is cut from the Leck and passes through the town of Amsterdam, will carry ships of any burden.

Guelderland may be divided into two parts; that which is situated north of the rivers Meuse and Niens, and is subject to the Dutch and Prussian Guelders, which appears to be classed more properly among the Ten provinces than the Seven. The air is more healthy than that of the maritime provinces, the ground lying higher. The soil is tolerably fruitful. The most noted towns in Dutch Guelderland are Hattem, Handerwick, Loo, Arnheim, and Nimeguen.

Handerwick has a university, but has been some years in a state of decay. Nimeguen, the seat of government for the province, is a large, strong, and handsome town, and has a considerable trade with some parts of Germany. It trades in beer, cattle, and butter; which latter is exported into all the other provinces. Loo was the favourite residence of king William III.

Dependant on Guelderland is the country of Zuthen, whose capital, of the same name, is a considerable town, distinguished by a magnificent church, and surrounded by walls.

The chief town in Prussian Guelderland is Gueldres, a fortified town.

SPANISH NETHERLANDS

We now proceed to the catholic or Spanish Netherlands, which consist of the ten following provinces. Flanders, divided among the Dutch, Austrians, and the French; Brabant and Limburg, claimed by the Austrians and Dutch; Luxemburg and Hainhault, shared by the Austrians and French; Namur, Antwerp, and Mechlin, subject to the former; Artois and Cambresis, the undisputed property of the latter. This was their state before the commencement of the late war, but they are now of all them reduced to subjection to France.

Flanders, the only maritime province in the Spanish Netherlands, is a fine champaign country, about 60 miles long and 50 broad, without any rising ground, and watered with many fine rivers and canals. In this province some important arts were invented and improved. Weaving in general was greatly improved, and the art of making all sorts of figures in linen was invented; also the art of dying cloths and stuffs of oil colours; the curing of herrings, &c. Though the manufactures of this country have greatly declined, yet silk, cotton, and woollen stuffs, brocades, camblets, tapestry, lace, and linen, are still manufactured here in great quantities.

The principal town in Flanders are Sluys, belonging to the Dutch; Ostend, Ghent, Bruges, Ypres, and Tournay, subject to Austria; Dunkirk, and Lisle, under the dominion of the French.

Ostend is not very large but is well fortified; it has a good harbour, and a magnifi-

cent town-house. Ghent is seated on four navigable rivers, the Scheld, the Lys, the Lieve, and the Moere, which run through it and form 26 little isles, which are connected by 300 bridges. On one of these bridges is a remarkable statue in brass of a young man who (they report) was obliged to cut off his father's head; but as he was going to strike, the blade flew into the air, and the hilt remained in his hand, upon which they were both pardoned. There is a picture of the whole transaction in the town-house. In the Friday's market place is a statue of Charles V. in the imperial habit. Near the town is a very high tower with a handsome clock and chimes. The great bell weighs 11,000 pounds. Ghent carries on a considerable trade, is pretty well fortified, and contains about 70,000 inhabitants.

Bruges is seated on a plain eight miles from the sea; and has a great number of canals, made for the benefit of trade, one of which leads to Ghent, another to Ostend, another to Sluys, to Newport, to Furnes, to Ypres, and to Dunkirk, which you may reach in a day in the summer. All the waters about Bruges are without any current; but they may be changed in half an hour's time, by opening the sluices, and letting the water run into the sea. There are several bridges about the city, and that which was built of freestone in 1739 is very stately.

Bruges was in very flourishing condition upwards of 200 years ago, and every nation had a consul herein for the maintenance of their rights and privileges; but since the enlargement of Amsterdam and Antwerp, the trade is diminished, and its inhabitants are not numerous enough for so large a place. However, there are many rich merchants, and a chamber for trade. There are several fine churches; in the first rank of which is the cathedral, whose rich ornaments and treasure deserve notice. The finest square in the city is the Great Market, in which stand the halls, with public galleries, and a large court in the middle, and on one of its sides a high steeple supported only with four pillars. It is full of bells, with the most harmonious chimes in all the country. On the side of the great square there is a structure which serves for a public magazine to lay a cloth in. It is built on a canal, and supported by pillars, in such a manner that small vessels can pass under it to cross the city from the canal of Ostend to that of Ghent.

The square where the Wednesday's market is kept is very fine; for it contains several walks between two rows of trees, and a new guard-house in the middle. The Burg is a large square, in which is the town-house, built in the Gothic manner, and adorned with a variety of figures of the antient counts and countesses of Flanders. In the same square there are several other public buildings. The church, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is very fine, with a high steeple which serves as a sea-mark for the ships that come to Ostend; on the inside are two tombs of copper gilt, of an extraordinary magnificence. Besides the cathedral and two collegiate churches, there are five parish churches, 14 chapels, and 12 convents for men and women. There are a great many alms-houses and hospitals, one of which is called the School of Begards, where there are about [illegible] boys, some of which are brought up to learning, others to trades, according to their genius. Their habit is cloth, and half of them wear blue and half red with

a black bonnet. There is also a school for poor girls to the number of 120, clothed with red or blue. In short there is no place in the Low Countries where they take more care of widows and orphans.

It is remarkable that the knights of the golden fleece were instituted in this city in 1430, when the marriage of Philip the Good was celebrated with Elizabeth, princess of Portugal. The parts about the city which belong to it are called Franc of Bruges, and contain 37 villages, and enjoy perfect liberty according to the tenor of their freedom. The fortifications of Bruges are but trifling, insomuch that in the time of war, they always yield to the strongest party. It is eight miles east of Ostend, 24 north-east of Ghent, and 46 west of Antwerp. E. lon. 30° 5', N. lat. 51° 11'.

Lisle is a large, rich, handsome, and strong town of French Flanders, of which it is the capital, with a strong castle, and a citadel built by Vauban, and said to be the finest in Europe, as well as the best fortified. The large square, and the public buildings are very handsome; and they have manufactures of silk, cambrics, and camblets; as well as other stuffs, which have been brought to great perfection.

Dunkirk is a strong sea-port town, celebrated for the disputes which have been excited by the question whether the French should by permitted to fortify it.

Brabant is bounded on the north by the province of Holland and the duchy of Guelderland; on the east by the same duchy and the bishopric of Liege; on the south by the provinces of Namur and Hainhault, and on the west by Zealand. It is divided into Dutch Brabant and Austrian Brabant; watered by several rivers, of which the Scheld, the Ruppel, and the Dommel, are the chief. The soil is very fertile; it contains 26 fortified towns, of which Brussels is the capital.

Brussels the capital of Brabant in the Austrian Netherlands, and generally the seat of the Austrian governor, is situated on the small river Senne, which runs through it. It is a rich and handsome city; and among the public structures, the ducal palace, where the governor resides, the town-house and arsenal, are most superb. No city in Europe, except Naples and Genoa, makes a finer appearance at a distance; but, like them, when in the town, it is all up and down hill. It is encompassed with a double brick wall, and seven gates; but being seven miles in compass, is too large to hold out a long siege. In Brussels are seven fine squares and market places; that of the great market is one of the most beautiful in the world. The town-house takes up one quarter of it; and has a very high steeple, on the top of which is a brazen statue of St. Michael, 15 feet high. In one of the apartments, which is handsomely adorned, the states of Brabant used to meet. In three other rooms there is the history of the resignation of Charles V. wrought in tapestry; which is so well done, that it may be mistaken for painting. In the other parts of the square are the halls of the different trades. There are here several palaces of the nobility: that of Orange now belongs to the king of Prussia. The opera house is built after the Italian manner, with rows of boxes in which are chimneys. One is covered over with looking-glass, so that they can sit by the fire, drink a bottle, and see what is doing. There are 20 public fountains, adorned with statues, at the corners of the most public streets; and in the middle of

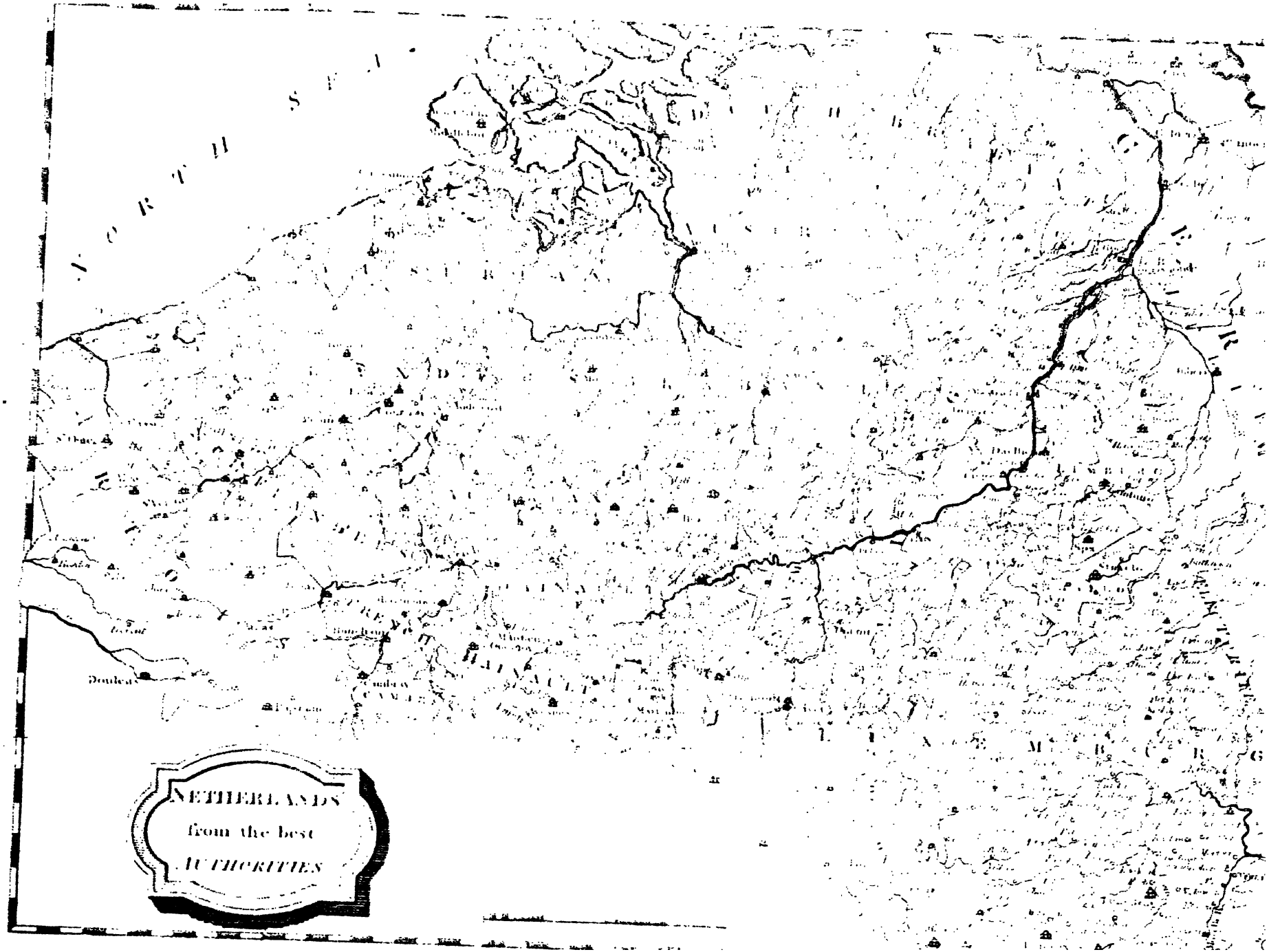
the town-house is one with Neptune, the tritons, and the horses spouting out water from their nostrils.

The hospitals are well endowed, some of which are for the maintenance of strangers for three days. There is also a foundling hospital, and one for penitent courtezans. Among the churches, that of St. Gudula is very magnificent. It stands on the top of the high hill, near the gate of Louvain, and is surrounded with iron balustrades. It is an old Gothic structure, with two large steeples at the east end, and is finely adorned within. The Jesuits have a fine church as well as library. There are several monasteries and nunneries, two of which last are English. The nunnery called the Beguinage is like a little town, being surrounded by a wall and ditch, and has little streets, where each nun has an apartment. Six or seven hundred girls are educated here.

In 1695, Brussels was bombarded by marshal Villeroy, who demolished 4000 houses, the stadt-house, and several churches. In 1708, it was besieged again by the elector of Bavaria; but the duke of Marlborough soon came to its assistance, and obliged him to raise the siege with precipitation. Marshal Saxe, the French general, took it in 1746; but it was restored by the treaty of Aix-le-Chapelle. It is much fallen from its former splendor; and all the trade which is carried on there is in lace, camblets, and tapestry, which they make to great perfection. E. Lon 4° 8′, N. Lat. 50° 51′.

Antwerp, capital of the marquisate of Antwerp, otherwise called the marquisate of the Holy Roman Empire, is situated in E. Lon. 4° 15′, N. Lat. 51° 12′. It lies on a low marshy ground on the Scheld, 24 miles from Brussels to the north. It is the third city in rank in Brabant, large and well built, containing 22 squares and above 200 streets, all straight and broad, especially that called the Mere, in which six coaches can go abreast. Most of the houses are of freestone, and have an air of antiquity, being high, with courts before and gardens behind. At the head of the Mere is a crucifix of brass 33 feet high. The cathedral, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, the stadt-house, and the exchange are magnificent structures: the latter is the first building of that kind in Europe, and from the model the exchanges of London and Amsterdam are built. Its pillars are all of blue marble, and carved, but all in a different manner. The exchange cost the city 300,000 crowns.

Antwerp, towards the end of the 15th century, was one of the most celebrated towns that ever existed. The Scheld, on which it stands, being 20 feet at low water, and rising 20 feet more at flood, ships of the greatest burden came up to the keys, as in the river Thames in London; but when the United Provinces formed themselves in a free state, after having shaken off the yoke of Spain, they got the entire command of the navigation of the Scheld; which ruined the trade of Antwerp, and transferred it to Amsterdam. This made the inhabitants turn their heads to painting, jewelling, and banking, which they have continued to this day with great success and reputation; for at Antwerp bills of exchange may be negotiated for any sum to any part of Europe; and in the time of queen Anne's wars, two brothers, of the name of De Kinuing, paid the one the army of France and the other that of the confederates. Besides, here


NETHERLANDS
from the best
AUTHORITIES

is a fine manufactory of tapestry and lace; and for the promoting of trade, an insurance company has been erected. This city is the see of a bishop; who, as abbot of St. Bernard, is the second prelate in Brabant. The bishopric is of great extent, and the cathedral a most noble pile, with one of the finest steeples in the world. The emperor Charles V. when he made his entry into Antwerp, said it ought to be put in a case, and showed only once a year for a rarity. The house of the Hans-towns, built when the city was in its flourishing condition, is a stately building, with magazines above for dry goods, and cellars below for wet, and in the middle story were 300 lodging-rooms for merchants; but now it is turned to a horse-barrack. There is a market called Friday's market, because it is held every Friday, where all sorts of household goods, pictures, and jewels, are sold by auction. No city in the Netherlands has so many and so fine churches as this. Many of them, particularly the cathedral and Jesuit's church, are adorned with paintings, by sir Peter Paul Rubens, who was a native of this city; and by Quintia Masseys, who is said to have been a blacksmith; but having fallen in love with a painter's daughter, and been told by her father, when he asked her of him in marriage, that he would have none but a painter for his son-in-law, he went to Italy to study painting, and in a few years returned so eminent in his new profession, that he found no difficulty in obtaining the father's consent. He is interred at the entry of the cathedral, where his effigy is put up, with an inscription signifying, that conjugal love made an Apelles of a blacksmith. The above mentioned Jesuit's church is extremely magnificent, and the chapel of the Virgin, joining to it, still more so. Among the cloisters, the most remarkable are, the noble and rich abbey of St. Michael, on the banks of the Scheld, the apartments of which are truly royal, and in which all sovereign princes that pass this way actually lodge; and the English nunnery, of the order of St. Teresa, the nuns of which never wear linen, nor eat flesh, and lie upon straw; the grates of the convent are so dismal that it looks like a prison. As to the fortifications of the city, it is so environed with a fine wall, planted with rows of trees on each side, with walks between, broad enough for two coaches to go abreast, being also defended by a very strong, large, and regular citadel, in form of a pentagon, erected by the duke of Alva in 1568, which commands the town and the neighbouring country. The magistracy of this city is chosen only out of the seven patrician families; and consists of two burgomasters and 18 echevins besides inferior magistrates. Among the privileges granted to it by its princes, there is one which every person born in it is a citizen, though both his father and mother were foreigners.

In 1585, Antwerp underwent a remarkable siege by the duke of Parma. It was then the most wealthy city in the Netherlands, and had long been the object of his designs; but the difficulties attending the enterprize obliged him to postpone it for a considerable time. In order to succeed, it was necessary to cut off the communication of the city with Holland, Ghent, and all places above and below Antwerp on the Scheld. To effect this, he laid siege to Liskenshouk and Tillo, places of the utmost consequence to the security and commerce of the city; both were obstinately defended; and the siege of the latter was raised, after it had been carried on for three months. However, the

duke gained several other posts on the river where he built forts, and greatly annoyed the shipping and trade of the city. He next laid siege to Dendermonde, in order to cut off the communication with Ghent, in which he succeeded by the reduction of the town. His next attempt was on Vilvorde; this place he took by assault, and thereby cut off the communication with Brussels. Finding, however, this method of hemming in the city tedious and ineffectual while an opening to the mouth of the river remained, he formed a design of building a bridge across the Scheld, the extremities of which were to be defended by strong forts and out-works. He began with collecting great quantities of wood at Callo and fort St. Philip, where he intended the bridge should be built; but this project was for some time retarded by the Antwerpers, who broke down the dykes, overflowed the whole country, and carried off his magazines by the inundation. Not discouraged by this loss, he applied himself diligently to repair it, and with incredible expedition cut a canal from Steken to Callo, by which he carried off the waters. He then set to work upon the bridge, and finished it in seven months, without any interruption from the Zealanders.

During the building of this bridge, Aldegonde, governor of Antwerp, proposed to build a fort on Couvensteyn dyke, in order to secure that important post, and then breaking down the dyke when the bridge was near finished: but he was violently opposed by certain citizens, who apprehended that their lands and villas would be destroyed by the inundation. This unseasonable opposition, with the negligence of the magistrates, who because the markets were high, had not laid in a sufficient quantity of corn, occasioned the loss of the city.

However, in despite of all the duke of Parma's precautions, the Zealanders found means to throw in a convoy of corn; but the citizens, knowing they would not run the risk of carrying it back again, so cheapened the price, that these bold traders refused ever to bring their goods again to so bad a market. The Antwerpers, having thus through avarice brought on their ruin, began in a short time to suffer by famine; they then pressed the Zealanders to attempt something for their relief, but it was now too late.

While the magistrates were deliberating on some means for destroying the bridge, which they might have prevented from being ever completed, one Ginebelli, a Mantuan engineer, offered his service, undertaking at a certain expence to blow it into the air. Even in this extremity the expence was grudged; but necessity at last overcame this obstacle; Ginebelli was furnished with two large vessels, and a number of small boats, and every thing necessary. He formed the two large vessels into fire-ships, which he set adrift with the stream, deceiving the enemy by means of false fires lighted up in the fleet and small boats. The train of one of the fire-ships was expended before the time expected, and she blew up with a terrible explosion, but with little damage to the bridge. The other was more successful, carrying off all the out-works, setting fire to the whole bridge, and burying above 500 soldiers in the ruins it made. The fire, however, was soon extinguished, and the bridge repaired by the duke of Parma, while the Antwerpers were prevented by avarice from repeating the experiment; so that they

were soon reduced to the greatest straits, and obliged to surrender. It is said the city of Amsterdam had obstructed every measure for the relief of Antwerp hoping to profit by its destruction. It was not doubted but the protestants would forsake it as soon as it fell into the hands of an arbitrary catholic prince; and this conjecture was soon fulfilled by the removal of many families with their effects to Amsterdam.

After the battle of Ramillies, the city of Antwerp surrendered to the duke of Marlborough. It was taken by the French in 1746, but restored to the house of Austria at the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Louvain, one of the most famous cities in Brabant, is situated on the river Dyle, in a pleasant country. The walls are about eight or nine miles in circumference; but they include several fields and vineyards. The castle stands on a high hill surrounded with fine gardens, and has a charming prospect all over the country.

This town contains nine market places, 14 watermills, 126 streets, 16 stone bridges, and several handsome palaces. The town-house is a venerable old building, adorned with statues on the outside; and the churches are very handsome, particularly the collegiate church of St. Peter; but the principal ornament is the university, founded only in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, with the concurrence of pope Martin V. It contains about 40 colleges, four of which are called Pedagogia. There is in the number also an English college of friars-preachers, which owes its establishment to the liberalities of cardinal Philip Howard, brother to the duke of Norfolk, who before he was raised to the purple had been private chaplain to queen Catharine, consort to Charles II. The Irish have likewise a seminary erected in part under the care of Eugenius Mattheus, titular archbishop of Dublin, anno 1623, which receives its appointments from the Propaganda at Rome. Besides the above, there are two convents for the Irish, one of Recollects and the other of Dominicans, where divinity and the mathesis are taught. In the last century the number of scholars exceeded 2000; but in the year 1743, the inhabitants amounted to 12,000, including 200 students only.

At the beginning of the 14th century, under John III. it flourished considerably in the manufacture of woollen cloth; 400 houses were then occupied by substantial clothiers, who gave employment to an incredible number of weavers, so great it is said, that a bell was rung to prevent any injuries which the children in the street might receive from the crowd and hurry on returning from work. In 1382, these weavers, however, took up arms, and rebelled against their sovereign prince Wenceslaus, throwing from the windows of the town-hall 17 of the aldermen and counsellors, and afterwards proceeded to lay waste great part of Brabant: but being besieged and reduced to great extremities, they submissively implored his clemency, which was granted after the execution of some of the principal ringleaders. The weavers, the chief instigators to this revolt, were banished, the greater part of whom took refuge in England; where they first introduced, or at least augmented very much, the woollen manufacture. The town by this circumstance almost being depopulated, the university was established to supply in

some measure the loss of the rebellious clothiers. Since that time the manufacture gradually declined, no cloth of any account being made there at present. This impolitic step of the duke Wenceslaus, sent treasures to England, through the hands of those exiled people; *an important lesson to governors that they should deal with great precaution respecting such useful members of the community.* Upon the ruins of these looms was formed the cloth manufacture of Limbourg, which is carried on with good advantage to this day. There is yet standing at Louvain part of the old drapers'-hall, now converted into four public schools, where lectures in divinity, philosophy, law, and physic, are given and the public acts are made. Adjoining to the schools is the university library, which altogether compose a large pile of buildings. Over the door of the chief entrance we read these words: Sapientia edificavit sibi domum. The principal church is the collegiate, dedicated to St. Peter, which had formerly three very large towers with elevated spires, one considerably higher than the two collaterals; these were blown down in the year recorded by this chronogram, o Mn Ia Ca DVnt. From the name of this church the burghers have acquired the nick-name of Petermen, whose ancestors having clothed the back by a noble woollen manufacture, the modern Petermen now compose an ignoble mixture for the belly, called after them Peterman beer, a sort of whitish muddy ale, which they notwithstanding send in large quantities to all parts of the country as well as to Holland, by the canals. Louvain was anciently the capital of the province, long before Brussels had any claim to that title. E. Lon. 4° 40' N Lat. 51° 12'.

Breda, the capital of Dutch Brabant, is a large, populous, and well built city, regularly fortified in the modern way, and one of the strongest places in the Dutch frontiers. It is seated on the river Meck, in a marshy country, which may be overflowed and rendered inaccessible to an army. It is of a triangular figure, and has at every angle a gate built with brick. The ramparts are all planted round with elms.

The great church is a noble structure, remarkable for its fine spire, which is 362 feet in height. The mausoleum of Augelbert II. count of Nassau, is a curious piece, adorned with several statues and inscriptions suitable to the occasion.

Another of the strong towns of Dutch Brabant is Berghen-op-Zoom, which sustained a celebrated siege in 1747. It is a well built town, seated on an eminence, in the middle of a morass, about a mile and a half from the eastern branch of the Scheld, with which it communicates by a navigable canal.

Boisle-duc is a large, handsome, strong town in the same province, seated among morasses between the rivers Dommel and Aa.

The city and territory of Mecklin or Malines are completely surrounded by Austrian Brabant.

The province of Namur is pretty fertile; has several forests, marble quarries, and mines of iron, lead, and pit coal; and is about 30 miles long and 20 broad. Its capital of the same name is a large, rich, and well fortified city, situated between two mountains at the confluence of the Sambre and Maese.

The duchy of Limburg is bounded by Juliers on the north and east, by Liege on the west, and Luxemburg on the south. It consists of good arable and pasture land, with plenty of wood and some iron mines.

In that part of the duchy which belongs to the Dutch stands the large and strong town of Maestricht. The town-house and the other public buildings are handsome, and the place is about four miles in circumference and well fortified. The inhabitants are noted for making excellent fire-arms. The magistrates are some of them of the catholic and some of them of protestant faith.

Limburg, the capital city of Austrian Limburg, is seated on a steep rock near the river Vesse. This town is small, but pleasantly seated on a hill with shady woods: and consists chiefly of one broad street, not very well built. It is strong by situation, and almost inaccessible; however, it was taken by the French in 1675, and by the confederates under the duke of Marlborough in 1703, for the house of Austria, to whom it remains by the treaties of Rastadt and Baden, after having been dismantled. It is famous for its cheese, which is exceeding good. E. Lon. 6° 8, N. Lat. 50° 40'.

The duchy of Luxemburg is bounded on the east by the archbishopric of Treves, on the south by Lorrain; on the west partly by Champagne, and partly by the bishopric of Liege, which likewise, with part of Limburg, bound it on the north. It lies in the forest of Ardenne, which is one of the most famous in Europe. In some places it is covered with mountains and woods, and in general it is fertile in corn and wine; and here are a great number of iron mines. The principal rivers are the Moselle, the Sour, the Ourte, and the Semoy. It belonged partly to the house of Austria, and partly to the French; Thionville is the capital of the French part.

The city of Luxemburg is seated partly on a hill, and partly on a plain; but is very strong both by art and nature. It is but indifferently built, though there are some good stone houses in it. There is nothing very remarkable among the structures but the Jesuits' church; which is a handsome edifice, after the modern taste. It was taken by Lewis XIV. in 1684, who so augmented the fortifications, that it is now one of the strongest towns in Europe. It was ceded to Spain by the treaty of Utrecht. It is 25 miles south-west of Treves, and 100 west of Mentz. E. Lon. 6° 10', N. Lat. 49° 32'.

The province of Hainault, before the late war, belonged partly to the French and partly to the emperor. It is bounded to the south by Champagne and Picardy; to the north by Flanders; to the east by Brabant, Namur, and Liege; and to the west by Artois and Flanders. Its extent from north to south is about 45 miles and about 18 from east to west. The air is pleasant and temperate, and the soil is fruitful: it abounds in rich pastures, corn fields, woods and forests, coal, iron, lead, beautiful marble, slate, and other useful stones: it is well watered by rivers and lakes, and breeds abundance of black cattle and sheep with very fine wool.

Mons, the capital of Austrian Hainault, is large, strong, beautiful, and rich; having seven manufactories and very good trade. Here was a chapter of 30 ladies who had the liberty of leaving the community whenever they pleased to marry.

Valenciennes, Conde, and Maubeuge, are become familiar to the reader in consequence of the resistance they made to the allied arms during the last war.

Artois has a considerable trade in grain, hops, flax, wool, and linen cloth. The most considerable places in this province are Arnas, St. Omer's, Bapaume, Bethune, and St. Venant.

Arnas is seated on a mountain; and the parts about it are full of quarries, where they get stone for building. It is divided into two parts, the town and the city. The abbe of St. Vaast is lord of the town, and the bishop of Arras of the city, which is the least part. They are divided by a strong wall, a huge fosse, and the little river Chrinchron, which, 100 paces below, falls into the Scarp. They are both well fortified, inclosed by high ramparts, and by double deep fosses, which in several places are cut out of the rock. It has four gates; and since the French are become masters of it, has a strong citadel with five bastions. The most remarkable places are the great square, where the principal market is kept: this is full of fine buildings, with piazzas all round it like those of Covent-Garden. Not far from this is the lesser market, which contains the town-house, a very noble structure, with a high tower covered with a crown, on the top of which is a brazen lion which serves for a vane. In the midst of this market is the chapel of the Holy Candle, which the papists pretend was brought by the Virgin Mary herself above 600 years ago, when the city was afflicted with divers diseases, and every one that touched the candle was cured; it is kept in a silver shrine. This chapel has a spire steeple, adorned with several statues.

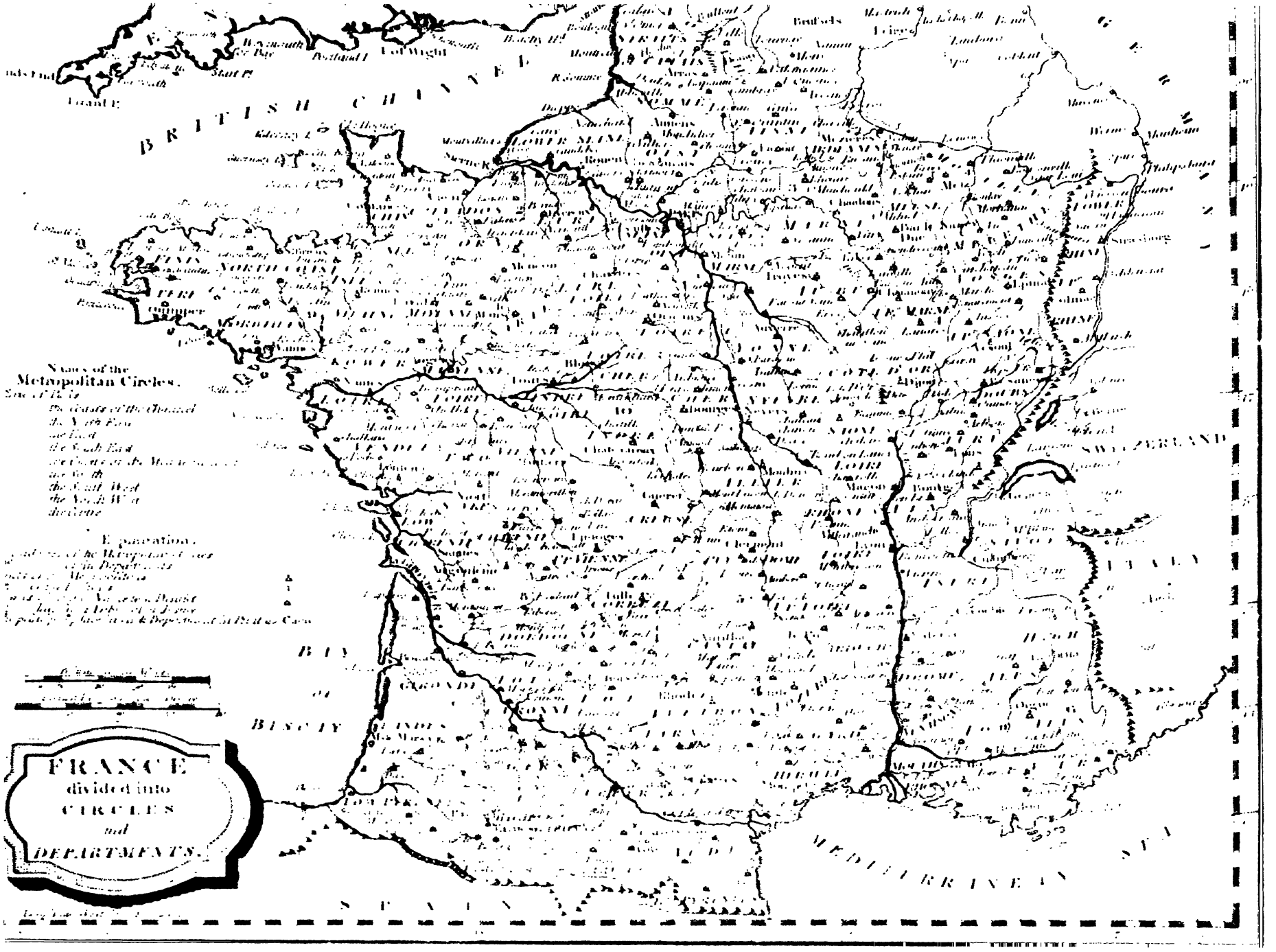
The cathedral church of Notre Dame stands in the city: it is a very large Gothic building, extremely well adorned; the tower is very high, and has a fine clock embellished with little figures in bronze, which represent the passion of Jesus Christ; they pass before the bell to strike the hours and half-hours. In this church there is a silver shrine, enriched with pearls and diamonds, which contains a sort of wool, which they call manna; that they say fell from heaven in the time of a great drought, almost 1400 years ago: they carry it very solemnly in procession when they want rain.

The Abbey-church of St. Vedast is the greatest ornament of Arras, it being adorned with a fine steeple, and seats for the monks of admirable workmanship; the pulpit is of brass, fashioned like a tree, supported by two bears of the same metal sitting on their hind legs; there are little bears in different postures coming to climb up the tree. The chimes are remarkable for the different tunes which they play.

There are 11 parish churches, and a great many convents of men and women. It is from this city the tapestry called arras hangings takes its denomination. E. Lon. 2° 56' N. Lat. 50° 15'.

Bethune is a fortified town; which contains upwards of 5000 inhabitants. St. Omer's besides being well fortified, has the advantage of being surrounded by a morass, which by means of sluices may be easily inundated.

Cambresis is a fertile province, the numerous inhabitants of which are very industrious. Their trade consists chiefly in corn and sheep, with very fine wool, and fine linen cloth.


BRITISH CHANNEL
Names of the
Metropolitan Circles.
FRANCE
divided into
CIRCLES
and
DEPARTMENTS.

The archiepiscopal city of Cambray, the capital of the province, is a large and beautiful city, particularly distinguished by its cathedral. The body of this church is very large, and there are belonging to it several rich chapels, the pillars of which are adorned with marble tombs of exquisite workmanship, and add greatly to the beauty of the place. There are two galleries, one of which is of copper finely wrought. The door of the choir is of the same metal, and well carved. The steeple is very high, and built in the form of a pyramid; affording from the top of it a view of the city the most beautiful of any in the Low Countries.

FRANCE.

France, previous to the late revolution, was divided into the following provinces. Isle of France, Picardy, Normandy, Champagne, Lorraine, Franche Compte, Burgundy, Lionois, Orleanois, Bretagne, Guienne, Gascogne, Reusillon, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphine.

The isle of France is so denominated from large portions of it being nearly surrounded by the rivers Oise, Seine, &c.

Paris, the capital of the kingdom of France, is situated on the river Seine, in the isle of France, being one of the largest and finest cities in Europe. It derives its modern name from the ancient Parisii; and is supposed by some to have had the latin name of Lutetia, from Lutum, mud, the place where it now stands having been anciently very marshy and muddy. Ever since the reign of Hugh Capet, that is near 800 years, this city hath been the usual residence of the kings of France; it is of a circular form, and, including the suburbs, about five French or 15 English miles in circumference. The number of its inhabitants is computed at about 500,000; that of its streets 912; and that of its houses upwards of 20,000, exclusive of the public structures of all sorts. Its greatest defect, according to some, is the want of good drinking water; but others tell us, that very fine water is brought by an aqueduct from the village of Arcueil, not far from Paris, but own that the water of the Seine, and the city, is not good. The streets are of a proper breadth, well built, paved, and lighted. There is a great number of tribunals and officers here; most of which are kept in the Louvre, situated on an island, to which it gives name. The number of churches, convents, hospitals, market-places, fountains, gates, and bridges in this city is very great; besides the university, several academies, public libraries, royal palaces and castles, and above 100 hotels, some of them very stately.

But to be more particular; that part called la Cite lies in the centre, and consists of three islands formed by the Seine; viz. L'Isle de Palais, L'Isle de Notre Dame, and L'Isle Louvres. It is the principal of the three parts into which the city is divided, and contains the following remarkable structures. 1, Several bridges; of which some are of wood and others of stone, and have most of them a row of houses on each side. The chief of these are the Pont-neuf and Pont-royal, the first consists of 12 arches, which, properly speaking, make two bridges, the one leading from the suburbs

of St. Germain to the city, and the other from thence to that part called la Ville : there is a carriage-way in the middle 30 feet broad, and foot-walks on each side, raised two feet high; and in the centre stands a brass statue of king Henry IV. on horse back. On this bridge is also the building called La Samaritaine, from a group of figures representing our Saviour and the Samaritan woman, standing near Jacob's well. Here is a pump to raise the water, which through several pipes supplies the quarter of the Louvre, and some other parts of the town. The Pont-royal, which leads to the Thuilleries, was built by order of Lewis XIV. in the room of a wooden bridge that was carried away by the current in 1684.

2. The cathedral of Notre Dame, or Our Lady, being dedicated to the Holy Virgin, which is a large, stately, Gothic structure, said to have been founded by king Childeric, and built in the form of a cross. Here, besides other great personages, are interred the cardinals de Retz and Noailles. From the two square towers belonging to it, is a noble prospect of the city and neighbouring country. Here is a vast quantity of gold and silver plate, rich tapestry, and fine paintings; and the number of the canons is no less than 50. Near it stands the palace of the archbishop, in which is the advocate's library; the revenue of the archbishop amounts to about 180,000 livres; and his taxation to the court of Rome is 4283 guilders.

3. The priory and parish church of St. Bartholomew; the last of which is the most beautiful in all this part of the city, and stands near the palace.

4. The palace, which gives name to an island, and in which the parliament, with a great many other courts are held. It was anciently the residence of the kings; but was given to the officers of justice by Philip the Fair, who also settled the parliament here in 1302. The parliament, consisting of several chambers, each of which has its department, is opened the day after Martinmas with a solemn mass, and is celebrated by a bishop, and continues sitting till the 8th of September, when a vacation-chamber is appointed during the interval, for criminal causes, and others which require dispatch. The jurisdiction of this court is of great extent. There is a beautiful chapel belonging to the palace; in which is also the prison or jail, for the jurisdiction of the parliament, called in French La Conciergerie.

5. The Hotel Dieu, the most antient and largest hospital in Paris, in which 8000 sick and infirm poor are taken care of, and attended by the nuns of the order of St. Augustine.

6. The hospital of St. Catharine, where poor women and maidens are entertained three days, and attended by the above-mentioned nuns.

7. The Grande Chatelet, where some of the inferior courts of justice hold their sessions.

8. Fort l'Eveque, in which is a mint and a prison. It stands in or near the street La Ferroniere, in which Henry IV. was stabbed by Revilliac.

9. St. Germain l'Auxerrois, which is called the royal palace church; because the palaces of Louvre and Thuilleries stand in its parish.

10. The Louvre, an antient royal palace, of which a part was rebuilt by Lewis XIV.

had it been completed on the same plan it would have been a most magnificent structure. On one of its gates is the following inscription: Dum totum impleat orbem: the meaning of which is, "May it last till the owner of it hath extended its sway over the whole world:" which implies what the French kings have constantly aimed at. Another inscription shows at the same time the vanity of the nation, and their abject flattery of their grand monarque. It may be rendered in English thus:

Louvre is a palace for great Lewis fit:
God him alone exceeds, as heav'n does it.

This palace is joined to the Thuilleries by a gallery, in which are 180 models of fortresses, some situated in France and some in other countries, executed with the utmost accuracy. Here is a valuable collection of paintings, the king's printing-house, the mint where the king's medals are struck, together with a prodigious quantity of rich tapestry hangings, and a collection of antient arms, among which are those worn by Francis I. at the famous battle of Pavia. Here also the French academy, the academy of inscriptions and belles lettres, the royal academy of the sciences, the academy of painting and sculpture, and the royal academy of architecture, have their meetings. The first of these was founded for the improvement of the French language: and as for the others, their names explain the design of their institution.

11. Le Palais Royal, which was built by cardinal Richelieu in the year 1636, and belongs to the duke of Orleans. It is said to contain pictures to the value of 4,000,000 of livres, which were purchased by the regent of that title, and of which a part belonged to Christina, queen of Sweden.

12. Le Palais des Thuilleries, so called from a tile or brick-kiln which stood there formerly. This palace, as we observed above, communicates with the Louvre by a gallery. Behind it are exceeding pleasant gardens, adorned with fine walks, planted with evergreens and other trees, with beautiful parterres, where are to be seen, all the year round, every flower according to its season. There are also three fine fountains, the garden, and a canal. Behind the Thuilleries, on the bank of the river, are pleasant walks composed of four rows of lofty elms, to which vast crowds of people resort in fine weather, as well as to the gardens. In the palace is a spacious and magnificent theatre; and hard by it are the Elysian fields, where a surprising number of coaches are to be seen in fair weather; not far off is the church of St. Roche, where the celebrated poet Corneille is interred.

13. La Place de Louis le Grand, a very beautiful square, in the centre of which is an equestrian statue of that king, which is justly accounted a master-piece.

14. The Place, or Square des Victoires, which is round, and contains a statue of Lewis XIV. of gilt brass, erected by the duke de la Feuillade, with this inscription, Viro immortali: To the immortal man.

15. The Royal Library in the Rue Vivien, which contains 94,000 printed books,

30,000 manuscripts, and a prodigious collection of copper-plates and medals. Near by, in the church-yard of St. Joseph, lies the famous comic poet Moliere.

16. The parish church of St. Eustace, which stands in the quarter of the same name, and contains the tomb of the great minister Colbert.

17. The gate of St. Dennis, which was erected as a triumphal arch, in honour of Lewis XIV.

18. The gate of St. Martin, erected also in form of a triumphal arch in honour of the same king. Not far from hence, in the church-yard of Nicholas des Champs, Peter Gessendi, and other learned men are buried.

19. La Creve, an open place, where all public rejoicings are celebrated, and malefactors executed.

20. The Hotel de Ville, which is a large building of Gothic architecture, though adorned with columns of the Corinthian order.

21. The arsenal, in the quarter of St. Paul, consisting of many spacious buildings, among which are a foundery and a house for making saltpetre. Here is a musquetoon of two barrels, which it is said will pierce a thick board at the distance of six miles; and for discerning an object at that distance, has a telescope fixed to a barrel.

22. The Bastile, a kind of fortress like the tower of London, which is used as a prison for state-criminals, and for such as are taken up by letters de cachet, i. e. by warrants signed by the king and sealed.

22. Le Temple, a commandery of the knights of Malta, which gives name to a quarter, wherein being a privileged place, artificers that are not freemen may carry on their business without molestation. The temple is the residence of the grand prior of the French nation.

24. That formerly called La Maison professe Jesuits, in the quarter of St. Anthony in the church of which the hearts of Lewis XIII. and XIV. are preserved, each in a casket of gold, supported by two angels of massy silver, and as big as the life, hovering with expanded wings. In the same quarter is a fine looking-glass manufacture, where above 500 persons are employed in polishing plates cast at St. Gobin; with a convent of Franciscans, the monks of which are called Pique puces, or Prick fleas.

In that part of the city called the University, the principal places are,

1. The university which gives name to it, and which was first founded, as it is said, by Charles the Great: all the arts and sciences are taught here; particularly law, physic, and divinity. There are above 40 colleges; of which the chief are those of Sorbonne, of Navarre, of the faculty or physic, and of the four nations; but lectures are read in eleven of them. The head of the university is the rector, who is chosen every three months, but sometimes is continued several years. All the professors have settled salaries; the whole annual income of the university amounting, it is said, to about 50,000 livres.

2. The Gobelins, a house or palace, where a great number of ingenious artists, in various manufactures, and handicrafts, are employed by the government. The most curious tapestry of all sorts is made here.

3. The General Hospital, a most noble foundation for the poor of the female sex, near 7000 objects being taken care of and provided for. The sick are carefully attended; and those that are in health are obliged to work; different wards being allotted for foundlings, for girls who sew or knit, prostitutes, ideots and poor women: of the last some are kept gratis, and others pay a small matter. In the castle of Bicetre, belonging to this hospital, and consisting of many large buildings, are near 4000 persons of the other sex, among which are persons disordered in their senses, and such as are afflicted with venereal disease. To this hospital are also sent children who abuse their parents and lead dissolute lives. The fund for the maintenance of it, and the hospital de la Pietie, where poor children are brought up, together with the Hotel Dieu, amounts to above 2,000,000 of livres per annum.

4. The King's Physic Garden, in which are an infinite variety of plants and trees, a certain sum being allotted by the king for keeping the garden in order, and improving it, and for lectures on botany, anatomy, chemistry, and the materia medica. A curious collection of natural curiosities is kept here.

5. The abbey of St. Victor, in which is a public library, containing some very antient and scarce books, several curious manuscripts, and a prodigious collection of maps and copper plates.

6. The college of Physicians, to which belong five professors.

7. The little Chatelet, an old fortress, now used for a prison.

8. The Rue St. Jacques, chiefly inhabited by booksellers.

9. The Royal College, and that of Lewis the Great: to the former belong 12 professors.

10. The Abbey of St. Genevieve, in which is the marble monument of king Clovis, the shrine of St. Geneveive, a large library, with a cabinet of antiquities and natural curiosities.

11. The Royal Observatory, a most stately edifice, built on the highest part of the city. Several astronomers are maintained here by the king.

12. The Royal academy of surgery, instituted in 1731.

13. The Convent of Franciscans in the quarter of St. Andrew the richest in France. In the same quarter are some remains of the palace of Julian the Apostate, in which Childebert, and some other kings of the Franks, afterwards resided.

14. The Play-house.

15. The Convent of Cartiusians, in the quarter of Luxemburg, containing five paintings.

16. The palace of Luxemburg or Orleans, a magnificent structure, containing also some fine paintings by Reubens, and embellished with a noble garden. On the Hotel des Ambassadeurs, ambassadors extraordinary are entertained for three days, and those of remote countries all the time they stay at Paris.

17. The abbey of St. Germain des Prez, which contains a very valuable library, the manuscripts alone making 8000 volumes: here also is a cabinet of antiquities.

18. The Hotel royal des Invalides, erected by Lewis XIV. in which lame and super-

annuated officers and soldiers are maintained. The buildings take up no less than 17 acres. The number of common soldiers here amount to about 3000, and of officers to about 500. The chapel is very magnificent. Hard by is a military academy, in which 500 young gentlemen are instructed in the art of war.

This description of Paris is meant to apply only to its condition before the late revolutions, the effect which these revolutions have produced on the city will be hereafter related.

Champagne has the Netherlands on the north, Lorrain on the east, Burgundy on the south, and the isle of France on the west. It is watered by a great number of rivers; has much fertile land; and its inhabitants trade in corn, excellent wine, linen cloth, woollen stuffs, cattle, and sheep. Troyes, the capital, is remarkable for having given name to that very antient kind of weight which is still used for weighing gold, silver, and jewels.

Chalons carries on a considerable manufactory of shalloons and other woollen stuffs. The cutlery made at Langres is in high esteem.

Mezieres is a strong town with a citadel.

Rheims is one of the most antient, celebrated, and largest cities in France; had an archbishop's see, whose archbishop was a duke and peer of the realm. It is about four miles in circumference, and contains fine squares, well built houses, and magnificent churches. It had a mint, an university, and five abbeys; the most famous of which was that of St. Remigius. It is seated on the river Vesle, on a plain surrounded by hills, and producing excellent wine.

Lorrain abounds in all sorts of corn, wine, hemp, flax, rape-seed, game, and fish; with which it carries on some trade, and possesses in general all the necessaries of life. There are fine meadows, and large forests, with mines of iron, silver, and copper, as also salt-pits.

Nanci, the capital of Lorrain, is situated on the river Meuse in the centre of the province. It is divided into the old town and the new. The first, though irregularly built, is very populous, and contains the ducal palace; the streets of the new town are as straight as a line, adorned with handsome buildings and a very fine square. In the church of the Cordeliers are the tombs of the antient dukes.

Metz is a large, strong, and antient town; the cathedral of which is reckoned one of the finest in Europe. The sweetmeats made here are in esteem. Other towns in this province are Toul, Verdun, Barleduc, and Sar Louis.

Franche Compte is partly hilly and partly level. The flat country is fruitful in grain, wine, hemp, and pasture; and the hilly country abounds in cattle, and produces some wine and corn, copper, iron, and silver ores, mineral waters, and quarries of stone, marble, and alabaster. Besancon, the capital, is seated on the Dreux, which divides it into two parts, the greatest of which is a peninsula. The entrance is shut up by a mountain, on which they have built a large citadel, which commands all the city. There are many names of places in and about the city that are plainly corruptions of the Latin, and are marks of its antiquity; as Chamars, Campus Martis, Chamuse, Cam-

pus Musarum, Chandane, Campus Diana, &c. The metropolitan church is built at the bottom of St. Stephen's hill; and is a very handsome structure with a high tower steeple. The great altar is placed in the middle choir, where on high days they expose reliques in silver shrines, enriched with gold and jewels. There are several tombs and other things remarkable in the churches; and after you have passed the church of Notre Dame and the square that it looks into, you come to a triumphal arch erected in honour of the emperor Aurelian, on which are several figures of men and animals pretty entire. It serves as a gate to St. John the Great. The great hospital of the order of the Holy Ghost is a structure worth seeing. The streets are wide and handsome: and the houses are well built with freestones, and covered with slate, chiefly about the square called Battan, which is adorned with a fountain, the water of which proceeds from the statue of Bacchus. The river Dreux is passed over on a stone bridge, to enter from one part of Besancon into the other. The market-place is at the entrances; and on the left is another square adorned with a fountain, where the great street begins, which traverses all this part from the bridge to St. John the Great. The new square is not far from this street, from whence you go to the town-house, which is a large structure with four wings, before the front of which is the statue of Charles V. in bronze, with a globe in one hand and a sword in the other. The Imperial eagle is raised over a large bason, and spouts out water by both his beaks.

Alsace is a province of France, bounded on the east by the Rhine, on the south by Switzerland, on the west by Lorrain, and on the north by the palatinate of the Rhine. It was formerly a part of Germany, but was given to France by the treaty of Munster. It is one of the most fruitful and plentiful provinces of Europe; abounding in corn, wine, wood, flax, tobacco, pulse, fruits, &c. The mountains which divide it from Lorrain are very high; and generally covered with fir, beech, oak, and horn-beam. Those on the side of Switzerland are less high, and furnished with all sorts of wood, as well for fuel as building. The country itself is diversified with rising hills and fertile vales, besides large forests; but that between the rivers Ill, Hart, and the Rhine, as far as Strasburg, is inferior to the rest, on account of the frequent overflowing of the Rhine. In High Alsace there are mines of silver, copper, and lead. They, however, work none but those of Giromany, from which are annually drawn 1600 marks of silver, each mark being eight ounces; and 24,000 pounds of copper; but the expence of working them is almost equal to the profit. There are iron-works in several parts of Alsace, and particularly at Betford. There is a mineral spring at Sultsbach, near Munster, in High Alsace; which is in great reputation for the palsy, weakness of the nerves, and the gravel. The original inhabitants of Alsace are honest and good natured, but wedded to their own manners and customs. The fruitfulness of their country renders them indolent and inactive; for the Swiss make their hay and reap their corn, as well as manage the vintage of High Alsace, which sends a great deal of money out of the province. The common language is the German: however the better sort of people speak French in the towns; and even in the country they speak French well enough to be understood.

Strasburg is an antient, large, handsome, populous, and strong city of France in Alsace. It contains about 200 streets, part of which are very narrow, and most of the houses are built after the antient taste. However there are a great number of handsome buildings, such as the hotel of the marshal of France, who is commander of the city; the hotel of the cardinal of Rouen, the bishop's palace, the Jesuit's college, the royal hospital, the hotel of Hesse-Darmstadt, the arsenal, the town-house, and the cathedral. It has a wooden bridge over the Rhine which is thought to be one of the finest in Europe, as is likewise the cathedral church, whose tower is the handsomest in Germany, and the clock is greatly admired by all travellers. Some look upon it as one of the wonders of the world, and the steeple is allowed to be the highest in Europe. The clock not only shows the hours of the day, but the motion of the sun, moon, and stars. Among other things there is an angel, which turns an hour glass every hour; and the 12 apostles proclaim noon, by each of them striking a blow with a hammer on the bell. There is likewise a cock, which is a piece of clock-work, that crows every hour. There are 700 steps up to the tower or steeple, it being 500 feet high. It was a free imperial city; but the king of France became master of it in 1681, and greatly augmented the fortifications, though before it had as many cannon as there are days in the year. The inhabitants were formerly protestants, and carried on a great trade; but most of them have been obliged to embrace the Romish superstition, though there is still a sort of toleration. Such was Strasburg before the French revolution; what it is now we shall hereafter inquire. It is seated on the river Ill, 55 miles north of Basil, 112 south-west of Mentz, and 255 east of Paris.

Burgundy is bounded on the north by Champagne; on the east by Italy and Franche Compte; on the south by Dauphine and Lyonois; and on the west by several of the sub-divisions of Orleanois. It produces abundance of excellent wine. Dijon, its capital, is an antient and handsome town, containing about 20,000 inhabitants. The streets are broad, well paved, and adorned with many fine buildings.

Auxerre is well situated for trade with Paris. The episcopal palace is one of the finest in France, and the churches are beautiful. Autun is remarkable for its ruins. The stones of its antient walls are so closely united that they would seem to be one entire mass cut out of the solid rock. Here are the remains of three antient temples, one of which is dedicated to Janus, and another to Diana. Here are likewise a theatre and a pyramid; which last is probably a tomb; it stands in a place called the field of urns, because several urns have been found there. Here are also two antique gates of great beauty.

Lyonois, a large province of France, bounded on the north by Burgundy; on the east by Dauphiny; on the south by Languedoc; and on the west by Orleanois. It comprehends Lower Lyonois, Beaujolois, Auverane, Bourbonnois, Marche, and Forez; and it produces corn, wine, fruits, and more especially excellent chesnuts. The principal rivers are the Soane, the Rhone, and the Loire. Lyons is the capital town.

Lyons, a large, rich, handsome, antient, and famous town of France, being the

most considerable in the kingdom, next to Paris, with an archbishop's see, an academy of sciences settled here in 1756. It is seated in the centre of Europe, on the confluence of the rivers Rhone and Soan: on the side of it are two high mountains; and the mountain of St. Sebastian serves as a bulwark against the north winds, which often blow here with great violence. It contains about 150,000 inhabitants; and the houses in general are high and well built. It has six gates, and as many suburbs. The town-house, the arsenal, the amphitheatre built by the antient Romans, the hospital, and the numerous palaces, are worthy of a traveller's attention. The cathedral is a superb structure, and the canons that compose the chapter were all persons of distinction. It is a place of very great trade, which is extended not only through France, but to Italy, Switzerland, and Spain; and there are four celebrated fairs every year, which are frequented by great numbers of people It derives vast advantages from the river it sands upon; and is situated in E. Lon. 4° 55', N. Lat. 45° 46'.

Clermont, the chief town in Auvergne, is rich and populous. Here is a bridge which they pretend to be formed by the petrifying quality of a fountain. Moulins, in Bourbonnois, has a good trade in cutlery.

Orleanois is a very large province; comprehending Orleanois proper, Maine and Perche, Touraine, Anjou, Berry, Angoumais, Aunis, and Nevernois. It is bounded on the north by Normandy and the Isle of France; on the east by Champagne and Burgundy; on the south by Lyonnois and Guienne; on the west by Bretagne and the ocean.

Orleanois derives great advantages for internal trade from the river Loire and the canals drawn thence. The city of Orleans stands about 20 leagues south of Paris, on the northern bank of the Loire; across which, Mr. Wraxall says, there is an elegant bridge of nine arches; the entrance by which is exceedingly noble and striking, the street which leads from it being composed of most elegant modern buildings. In general, however, excepting this street, it is very meanly built; the streets are narrow, and the inhabitants in general poor. It is surrounded with walls, and fortified with 40 towers. The streets almost all terminate at the quay for the convenience of trade. It is a place of considerable magnitude; and, before the revolution, had several inferior courts of justice, and an university of no great repute. It was also a bishop's see; and the cathedral is a most superb Gothic structure, and the finest steeple in France, till it was damaged in the time of the civil wars. There are 22 parishes in it, and a great number of churches, some of which were collegiate, and religious houses. There is also a public walk, planted with several rows of trees; and there used to be some sugar bakers; a manufacture of stockings and sheep-skins; a seminary in which divinity was taught; a great trade in brandy, wine, spices, and several manufactures, which, with many other commodities, used to be conveyed to Paris by means of the Loire, and the canal which takes its name from the city. The canal begins about two miles above the city; is near 18 leagues in length; and terminates on the Loire, which falls into the Seine. The environs of Orleans, more especially in the province of Sologne, to the south of the Loire, are very agreeable. It is in general a level country, covered

with corn and vines. To the north of the city is a forest, the largest in the whole kingdom. Before the revolution it belonged to the duke of Orleans, to whom the timber felled in it, one year with another, brought about 100,000 livres. Ever since the year 1344 this city has been a dukedom and peerage, and usually an appendage of some prince of the blood. The bishop was suffragan to the archbishop of Paris, and had a revenue of 24,000 livres, out of which his tax to Rome was 2000 florins. A new bishop, it is said, on the first day of his entering, had the privilege of releasing all the prisoners in it except those committed for high treason. In the street leading from the bridge stands the celebrated monument where Charles VII. and Joan of Arc, the maid of Orleans, are represented on their knees before the body of our Saviour, who lies extended on the lap of the Virgin. It was erected by order of that monarch in 1748, to perpetuate his victories over the English, and their expulsion from his dominions. All the figures are in iron. The king appears bare-headed, and by him lies his helmet, surmounted with a crown. Opposite to him is the maid herself, in the same attitude of grateful devotion to heaven. It is a most precious and invaluable historical monument.

Mans is an antient, large, and populous city; famous for its wax and stuffs.

Angers was formerly a town of great magnificence; which is evinced by the wall, fosses, and ditches which still subsist. In its cathedral, a very venerable and singular structure, lies interred Margaret, queen to Henry VI. of England. All the houses of Angers are covered with slate, which circumstance has gained it the appellation of the black city.

The petty province of Touraine is so pleasant and fruitful as to be called the garden of France.

Saumur is a small town that commanded the passage of the Loire, and was therefore an important object to contending parties.

Poictou is fertile in corn, wine and cattle. Poictiers is a large town with many Roman antiquities; particularly an amphitheatre and a triumphal arch.

Aunis has the advantage of several ports, and its salt marshes produce the best salt in Europe.

Rochelle, the capital of Aunis, has a very safe and commodious harbour; which, though it does not admit vessels of any considerable burden, is yet well calculated for trade. "It may be divided," says Mr. Wraxal, "into three parts; the bason, which is the innermost of these, is only a quarter of a mile in circumference; and at the entrance are two very noble Gothic towers, called the Tour de St. Nicholas, and the Tour de la Chaine. They are now in a state of decay, but were antiently designed to protect the town and harbour. Without these towers is the Avant Port, extending more than a league, and bounded by two points of land to the north and south. Beyond all is the road where the largest ships usually anchor, protected from the south-west winds by the islands of Re, Oleron, and Aix.

Rochefort is a handsome and considerable town of France, in the territory of Aunis. It was constructed by Lewis XIV. and is built in the midst of marshes expressly drained for that purpose; and time evinced the utility of the project, for as a port it soon be-

came as necessary and important to the crown of France as Brest or Toulon. It has a department of the marine, and has large magazines of naval stores. There is also one of the finest halls of arms in the kingdom, and a great many workmen employed in making them; there are also forges for anchors, and work-houses for ship carpenters, who are employed in every thing that relates to the fitting out of ships that come within the compass of their province. They likewise cast great guns here; and have artists, whose employment is sculpture and painting. There are also stocks for building men of war, rope-walks, magazines of provisions, and powder, a manufactory of sail-cloth, an hospital for sailors, and proper places to clean the ships. Add to these the houses of the intendant, the square of the Capuchins, and the superb structure which contains lodgings for 300 marine guards, where they are taught the business and exercises belonging to seamen and officers who go on board the men of war.

Beside the usual number of workmen which were employed at Rochefort during the monarchy, which amounted to about 900, there were about 600 galley slaves occupied in the most painful and laborious branches of service. The town is situatad on the river Charente, about five leagues from its mouth, and was fortified by Lewis XIV. at the time he constructed it; but its situation is at so considerable a distance from the sea as to render it sufficiently secure from any attack, and they have therefore closed up the battlements, and neglected the fortifications. The town is laid out with great beauty and elegance. The streets are all very broad and straight, extending through the whole place from side to side; but the buildings do not correspond with them in this respect, as they are mostly low and irregular.

Soissons, formerly the capital of a kingdom, is seated in a very pleasant and fertile valley on the Aisne. The environs are charming, but the streets are narrow and the houses ill built; it contains about 12,000 inhabitants.

Laon stands on a mountain; its principal trade is in wine.

Versailles stands 10 miles south-west of Paris It contains 60,000 inhabitants, though in the reign of Lewis XIII. it was only a small village.

Louis XIV. built a magnificent palace here, which was the usual residence of the kings of France. The buildings and gardens are adorned with a vast number of statues, done by the greatest masters, and the water-works are all worthy of admiration. The great gallery is thought to be as curious a piece of workmanship of that kind, as any in the world; nor is the chapel less to be admired for its fine architecture and ornaments. The gardens, with the park, are five miles in circumference, and surrounded by walls. There are three fine avenues to Versailles; one of which is the common road to Paris, the other comes from Seaux, and the third from St. Cloud.

The antient city of Noyon is of a moderate size, and has a considerable trade to Paris in wheat and oats. They have also manufactories of linen cloths, lawns, and tanned leather.

The principal buildings are the episcopal, a cloister where the canons of the cathedral dwell, and the town-house. The latter is regularly built in a large square, in the middle of which is a fountain, where the water conveyed to it from the neighbouring

mountain, runs continually through three conduits, and is received in a large bason built of very hard stone. They have also many other fountains, several market-places, and two public gardens.

Noyon is remarkable for the birth of John Calvin.

Fontainbleau, which is seated in the midst of a forest, is remarkable for its fine palace, in which the kings of France used to lodge when they went a hunting.

Beauvis carries on a good trade in beautiful tapestry. Its cathedral is much admired for its fine architecture, and contains a great number of relics, and a library of curious books.

Picardy is generally a level country; and produces wine, fruits of all kinds, plenty of corn, and great quantities of hay; it has also turf, and some pit-coal, but not so good as that of England. Here are bred many thousand colts, which are afterwards turned loose in the pastures of Normandy, and sold for Norman horses. In this province are made beautiful silk stuffs, woollen stuffs, coarse linen, lawn, and soap.

The principal town, Amiens, is a large handsome city, surrounded with walls and ramparts, well planted with trees. The river Somme enters the city by three different channels, under as many bridgss; and these channels, after washing the town, and being applied to the uses of several manufactories, unite at the other end by the bridge of St. Michael. The houses are well built, the streets spacious, and the cathedral beautiful, particularly the nave.

Calais, a strong town of France, in Lower Picardy, with a citadel and fortified harbour. It is built in the form of a triangle, one side of which is towards the sea. The citadel is as large as the town, and has but one entrance. It is a trading place, with handsome streets, and several churches and monasteries; the number of inhabitants is reckoned to be 4000.

Calais was taken by Edward III. in 1347. Hither he marched his victorious army from Cressy, and invested the town on the 8th of September. But finding that it could not be taken by force, without the destruction of great multitudes of his men, he turned the siege into a blockade; and having made strong entrenchments to secure his army from the enemy, huts to procure them shelter from the inclemency of the weather, and stationed a fleet before the harbour to prevent the introduction of provisions, he resolved to wait with patience till the place fell into his hands by famine. The besieged, discovering his intention, turned 1700 women, children, and old people out of the town, to save their provisions; and Edward had the goodness, after entertaining them with a dinner, and giving them two-pence a-piece, to suffer them to pass. The garrison and inhabitants of Calais having at length consumed all their provisions, and even eaten all the horses, dogs, cats, and vermin in the place, the governor, John de Vienne, appeared upon the walls, and offered to capitulate. Edward, greatly incensed at their obstinate resistance, which had detained him eleven months under their walls, at an immense expence both of men and money, sent sir Walter Manny, an illustrious knight, to acquaint the governor, that he would grant them no terms; but that they must surrender at discretion. At length, however, at the spirited remonstrances of the governor, and the persuasions of

sir Walter Manny, Edward consented to grant their lives to all the garrison and inhabitants, except six of the principal burghers, who should deliver to him the keys of the city, with ropes about their necks. When these terms were made known to the city of Calais, they were plunged into the deepest distress; and after all the miseries they had suffered, they could not think without horror of giving up six of their fellow-citizens to certain death. In this extremity, when the whole people were drowned in tears, and uncertain what to do, Eustace de Pierre, one of the richest merchants in the place, stepped forth, and voluntarily offered himself to be one of these six devoted victims. His example was soon imitated by other five of the most wealthy citizens. These true patriots, bare-footed and bare-headed, with ropes about their necks, were attended to the gates by the whole inhabitants, with tears, blessings, and prayers for their safety. When they were brought into Edward's presence, they laid the keys of the city at his feet, and falling on their knees implored his mercy in such moving strains, that all the noble spectators melted into tears. The king's resentment was so strong for the many toils and losses he had suffered in this tedious siege, that he was in some danger of forgetting his usual humanity; when the queen falling upon her knees before him, earnestly begged and obtained their lives. This great and good princess conducted these virtuous citizens, whose lives she had saved, to her own apartment, entertained them honourably, and dismissed them with presents. Edward took possession of Calais August 4th; in order to secure a conquest of so great importance, and which had cost him so dear, he found it necessary to turn out all the antient inhabitants, who had discovered so strong an attachment to their native prince, and to people it with English.

Calais remained in subjection to England till the reign of queen Mary, when it was retaken by the duke of Guise. This general began the enterprise by ordering the privateers of Normandy and Bretagne to cruise in the channel, more especially in the very straits of Calais: he then detached the duke of Nevers, with a considerable army, towards the country of Luxemburg: a motion which drew the attention of the Spaniards that way: when all things were ready he procured an application from the people of Bolougne, for a body of troops to secure them against the incursions of the Spaniards; he sent a strong detachment at their request, which was followed by another, under colour of supporting them, then repaired thither in person, secure that his officers would follow his instructions; and thus on the first day of the new year, 1557, Calais was invested. He immediately attacked fort St. Agatha, which the garrison quitted, and retired into the fort of Nieulai, which, together with the Risbank, the besiegers attacked at the same time, granted good terms to the officer who commanded in the former, but obliged the garrison of the latter to surrender prisoners of war. By these means he opened a communication with the sea; and having received from on board the ships an immense quantity of hurdles, his infantry, by the help of them, passed the morasses that lie round the town. He then made a false attack at the water-gate, which drew the attention of the garrison, who fatigued themselves exceedingly in making entrenchments behind the breach; but when they had finished their work, he began to fire upon the castle, where the walls were very old, and had been neglected on account of the breadth

of the ditch which was also very deep when the tide was in; but a great breach being made, the duke caused it to be attacked in the night, and during the ebb, the soldiers passing almost up to the shoulders. The place was easily carried, though the governor made three vigorous attacks before the break of day, in order to dislodge them; but the French, though they lost a considerable number of men, kept their post.

The governor then saw that it was impracticable to defend the place any longer, and therefore made the best terms for himself that he could obtain; which, however, were not very good: and thus in eight days the duke of Guise recovered a fortress which *caused the victorious Edward III. a whole year's siege, and which had been now 210 years in the possession of the English, without so much as a single attempt to retake* it.

There are very different accounts given of this matter. Some English historians say, that king Philip penetrated the design of the French upon this fortress, gave notice of it in England, and offered to take the defence of it upon himself; but that this, out of jealousy, was refused, it being believed to be only an artifice to get a place of such consequence into his own hands. The truth of the matter seems to be this: the strength of Calais consisted in its situation and out-works, which required a very numerous garrison; but this being attended with a very large expence, the best part of the troops had been sent to join Philip's army, so that the governor had not above 500 men, and there were not more than 250 of the townsmen able to bear arms. As to ammunitions, artillery, and provisions, the French found there abundance; but with so slender a garrison, that it was impossible to make a better defence; and therefore, when the lord Wentworth, who was governor, and whom the French call lord Dumfort, was tried by his peers for the loss of this place, he was acquitted. The duke obliged all the English inhabitants to quit Calais; and bestowed the government of it upon des Termes, who was soon after made a marshal of France.

The fortifications of Calais are good; but its greatest strength is its situation among the marshes, which may be overflowed at the approach of an enemy. The harbour is not so good as formerly, nor will it admit vessels of any great burden. In times of peace, there are packet-boats going backward and forward twice a week from Dover to Calais, which is 21 miles distant. E. Lon. 2° 6′, N. Lat. 50° 58′.

Boulogne has usually many English and Scotch inhabitants. It is divided into the Upper and Lower towns. The former is strong both by nature and art; the latter is surrounded only by a single wall. The harbour is defended by a mole.

Abbeville is a well fortified town, that has never yet been taken, and is therefore called the Maiden town. It is pretty well peopled; and famous for its woollen manufactory.

Peronne is well fortified, and Guise has a strong castle.

Normandy abounds with every thing but wine, and this defect is supplied by cyder and perry. There are vast meadows, fat pastures, and the sea yields plenty of fish. It contains iron, copper, and a great number of rivers and harbours. It carries on a vast trade, is very populous, and contains vast numbers of towns and villages.

Rouen, the capital of Normandy, had an archbishop's see, a parliament, a mint, a handsome college, an academy, two abbeys, and an old castle. It is seven miles in circumference; and surrounded by six suburbs; and contained, before the revolution, 35 parishes, and 24 convents for men and women.

The metropolitan church has a very handsome front, on which are two lofty steeples, whence there is a fine view of the town and country. The great bell is 13 feet high and 11 in diameter. The church of the Benedictine abbey is much admired by travellers. The parliament house is adorned with beautiful tapestry and fine pictures. There are a great number of fountains, though the houses are ordinary; but the walk upon the quay is very pleasant, and there are 13 gates from thence into the city. The number of the inhabitants is about 60,000; and they have several woollen manufactures. It is seated on the river Seine; and the tide rises so high that vessels of 200 tons may come up to the quay; but one of the greatest curiosities is the bridge, of 270 paces in length, supported by boats, and consequently is higher or lower according to the tide. It is paved; and there are ways for foot passengers on each side, with benches to sit upon; and coaches may pass over it at any hour of the day or night. It is often called Roan by English historians; and is 50 miles south-west of Amiens, and 70 north-west of Paris

Though large and enriched by commerce, Rouen is not an elegant place. The streets are almost all narrow, crooked, and dirty, the buildings old and irregular. It was fortified by St. Lewis in 1253, but the walls are now demolished. The environs, more peculiarly the hills which overlook the Seine, are wonderfully agreeable, and covered with magnificent villas. E. Lon. 1° 10', N. Lat. 49° 26'.

Alencon is a large handsome town, surrounded with good walls, and flanked with towers. The castle was formerly a place of great consequence, and has held out several sieges. It is seated on the river Sarte, in a vast open plain, and has near it quarries of stone for building.

Bayeux has a fine cathedral, whose front and three steeples are said to be the best in France.

Caen, the capital of Lower Normandy, is celebrated for the royal square, which is said to be the most beautiful in all the province. In the middle of it is a statue of Lewis XIV. in a Roman habit, standing on a marble pedestal.

The other considerable places in Normandy are Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Cherbourg, Lisieux, Evreux, Valognes, and Avranches.

Encompassed by the ocean on three sides, and bounded on the other by Normandy and Orleanois, the province of Bretagne contains several of the best sea-ports in France, and has afforded shelter to a body of malcontents, who threatened the existence of the late republican government.

The capital of the province is Rennes, which, before the revolution, had a bishop's see, two abbeys, a parliament, and a mint. It is very populous; the houses are six or seven stories high, and the suburbs of longer extent than the town itself. The cathedral is large, and the parliament-house a handsome structure. The great square be-

longing to it is surrounded with handsome houses. There is a tower, formerly a pagan temple, which now contains the town-clock. It is seated on the river Villaine, which divides it into two parts, and was antiently fortified, but the walls are now in ruins, and the ditch nearly filled up.

Nantes had also a bishop's see, a university, and a mint. It is one of the most considerable places in the kingdom; contains the richest merchants, and was formerly the residence of the dukes of Bretagne, where they built a very strong castle on the side of the river and which is strongly fortified. There are several parishes, and a great many religious houses, and the cathedral contains the tombs of the antient dukes. There are several fine bridges over the river Loire, which is navigable. The suburbs are so large, on account of the number of people that come from all parts to settle here, that they exceed the city. The Spaniards trade here with wine, fine wool, iron, silk, oil, oranges, and lemons; and they carry back cloth, stuffs, corn, and hard-ware. The Dutch send salt-fish; and all sorts of spices, and in return have wine and brandy. The Swedes bring copper: and the English lead, tin, and pit-coal. It was in this place that Henry IV. promulgated the famous edict in 1598, called the edict of Nantes, and which was revoked in 1685. Nantes was antiently, like almost every considerable city in Europe, very strongly fortified. Peter de Dreux, one of the dukes of Bretagne surrounded it with walls, which have only been demolished within these few years. The bridge is an object of curiosity. It is near a mile and a half in length, being continued across all the little islands in the Loire, from north to south. The territory of Nantes lies on both sides of the Loire, and feeds a great number of cattle.

Brest is a maritime town of France, in Lower Brittany, seated on the declivity of a hill on the side of its port, which is the largest in the kingdom, and will hold 600 ships at a time. There is an arsenal with sea stores, which was placed there on account of its nearness to the woods, mines of iron, and other things proper for the building of ships. The entrance into the port is guarded by a strong castle seated on a rock, which cannot be attempted on the sea side, because it is craggy, and is defended on the land side by a large ditch and other fortifications. The streets of Brest are very narrow, ill contrived, few in number, and have all a descent. A great quay surrounds this side of the port, which is above a mile in length, and 200 paces broad; and there are magazines on the quay, full of all foreign merchandizes.

Dol, Dinant, Brienne, Quimper, and Vannes, are considerable towns in this province.

Malo stands on a rock called the island of St. Aaron, surrounded by the sea at high water, which is now joined to the continent by means of a sort of causey or dyke near a mile long, called the Sillon, which has been often damaged by storms, and was almost quite ruined in the year 1730. At the end of this causey next the town is a castle flanked with large towers, a good ditch, and a large bastion. The city nearly covers the whole surface of the island, and is of an oblong form, surrounded with a strong rampart, on which there is a number of cannon. There is always in it a good garrison. The cathedral church is dedicated to St. Vincent, and stands in the square

of the same name, as do also the town-house and the episcopal palace. There are some other squares in the place, but less remarkable; and as to the streets, except two or three they are all very narrow. There being no springs of fresh water in St. Malo, the inhabitants are at great pains to convey the rain, which falls on the roofs of their houses, into cisterns; and of this they obtain enough for all family uses. There is only one parish-church in the town, though it contains between 9 and 10,000 inhabitants; but there were several convents of monks and nuns, and a general hospital. The two entrances into the harbour are defended by several forts, such as that of the Conchal; of the great and the little bay; the forts of Isle-Rebours, Sezembre, Roteneuf; the castle of Latte, and Fort-Royal. There are several little isles near the harbour, the most considerable whereof is that of St. Sezembre, which is near a quarter of a league in circumference, which serve as so many out-works to the fortifications of the city, and are useful as bulwarks, by breaking the violence of the waves, which otherwise would beat with great force against the walls of the city. At the end of the causey, next the continent, stands the suburb of St. Servant, large and well built. Here the merchants have their houses and store-houses. Here is the dock-yard; and a secure harbour is formed by the river Rance, where ships of great burden can ride at anchor very near the houses. The harbour is one of the best in the kingdom, and most frequented by merchants-ships; but it is of very difficult and dangerous access on account of the rocks which lie round it. The town of St. Malo is exceedingly well situated for trade; and accordingly in this respect, it has succeeded beyond most towns in France. It maintains a trade with England, Holland and Spain. The commerce of Spain is of all the most considerable, and most profitable to the inhabitants of St. Malo, the ships of the Malonins being frequently employed as register ships by the Spaniards, to carry out the rich cargoes to Peru and Mexico, and bring home treasure and plate from America. The inhabitants of St. Malo carry on also a considerable trade of dry and salted cod to Newfoundland. They send to this fishery a good many vessels from 100 to 300 tons burden, with salt for the fish, and provisions for subsisting the crews. They carry their fish to Italy, Spain, and some to Bourdeaux and Bayonne, and bring home the returns in fruits, soap, oil, &c. which are disposed of to great advantage at Nantz. St. Malo is the capital of the bishopric of that name, which is of considerable extent; and the soil about it produces most kinds of grain and fruits in great abundance. The most remarkable towns in the district and diocese of St. Malo, are St. Servand, Cancelle, Chateau, Neuf, Dinian, Tintiniac, Combourg, Montfort, Breal, Guer, Ploermel, Josselin, &c.

Guienne is a large province of France, consisting of many districts, and divided into two parts by the Garronne; Guienne which lies on the north of that river, and Gascony on the south; to the former is attached Limosin, and to the latter Bearne.

North of the Garronne are the following towns, Perigueux, Sarlat, Cahors, Agen, Rhodes, Milhaud, Vabres, Limoges, Tulles, and Saintes.

Perigueux is remarkable for the ruins of a temple of Venus, and of an amphitheatre. The neighbouring country abounds in iron-mines, and the air is pure and healthy.

Cahors is well fortified and partly erected on a rock. The principal street is narrow, and terminates in the market-place, in which is the town-house.

Agen is a rich, handsome, and antient city, in a very agreeable country, on the banks of the Garonne. The manufactories here carried on, are table-linen, camblets, serges, and sail-cloth. Prunes here form a considerable object of commerce, the Dutch taking great quantities of them for long voyages.

Limosin abounds in forests of chesnut trees, and contains mines of lead, copper, tin, and iron; but the principal trade consists in cattle and horses.

Limoges is an antient and very considerable trading town.

Tulles is erected partly on a mountain, and partly below it, in a country full of mountains and precipices.

Saintes is a large and antient town with several monuments of antiquity, of which the most famous are an amphitheatre, aqueducts, and a triumphal arch on the bridge over the Charente.

On the south of the Garonne are Bourdeaux, Bazas, D'Ags, Bayonne, St. Sever, Aire, Leitoure, Condom, Auch, Tarbes, St. Bertrand, Lizier, Lombez; and in Bearn, Pau, Lescar, Oloron.

Bourdeaux is an antient maritime city, one of the first in France for riches and beauty. It is seated on the Garonne, by the side of which river is a large quay, and as the tide flows here four yards perpendicular, large vessels come up to the town. The inhabitants are about 100,000, their trade is very extensive, and they ship annually 100,000 tons of wine and brandy.

Bayonne is a small compact city, noted for hams and chocolate. The entrance of the harbour is difficult, but ships when they have entered find safe riding.

Auch stands on the summit of a hill, at the foot of which runs the Gen. A few years ago it was ill built, but of late it has been adorned with many beautiful structures. They have manufactories of velvets, serges, crapes, hats, and leather.

Tarbes is a populous town, with elegant public buildings.

Pau is a large ill built town.

Languedoc is bounded on the north by Lyonois, on the east by Dauphine and Provence, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by Gascony. The clergy were here more numerous than any where else in France, there being in this province three archbishops and 20 bishops. Languedoc is divided into the Upper and Lower. It is in general a pleasant country, fertile in corn, fruits, and excellent wine, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade. Here are produced many curious medicinal plants, a great deal of kelp, and on the heaths a good number of the kermes oak. Iron, marble, and turquois stone are also among the productions of Languedoc.

The province is famous for the royal canal, which passes through it joining the Mediterranean with the Atlantic. This canal was undertaken in 1666 and finished in 1680; the mathematician who undertook it, made a bason 400 yards long and 300 broad and seven feet deep, which is always kept full of water, and may be let out by means of a sluice on the side of the Mediterranean, and another on the side of the Atlantic.

Toulouse, the capital of Languedoc, is accounted the third city in France, being surpassed only by Paris and Lyons. Its population, is, however, inadequate to its extent, as, according to Mr. Neckar's calculation, it contains only 56,000 inhabitants. The walls of the city as well as those of the houses are built with brick. The town-house, a modern structure, forms a perfect square, 324 feet long and 66 high. The principal front occupies an entire side of the grand square, lately called the Place Royal. In the great hall, called the Hall of Illustrious Men, is the statue of the chevalier Isaure, and the busts of all the great men to whom Toulouse has given birth.

Communicating with the ocean on one side by the river Garronne, and on the other with the Mediterranean by the canal of Languedoc, Toulouse might have been a very commercial city; but the taste of its inhabitants has been principally for literature. In consequence of this predilection, here are two colleges, two public libraries, and three academies.

Narbonne is a mean and ruinous place, which makes pretensions to high antiquity, but exhibits no marks of magnificence. It is particularly famous for its honey.

Montpelier, one of the handsomest towns of France, and the most considerable in Languedoc, excepting Toulouse, is situated in E. Lon. 4° 20', N. Lat. 45°·55'. It hath a citadel, a bishop's see, an university, a royal academy of sciences, and a mint. This town has been long famous for a salubrious air and skilful physicians. In reality the air may be salutary in catarrhous consumptions from its dryness and elasticity; but it is too sharp in case of pulmonary imposthumes. The climate, according to some late travellers, is so much altered for the worse, that the inhabitants themselves scarce know it to be the same: it has been changing many years, and every year becomes worse and worse. It has been known to rain for almost three months without intermission: and at intervals such thick stinking fogs, as nothing but the banks of Newfoundland could equal; and several times, for two or three days on a stretch, the sky is so heavily loaded, that neither the sun, moon, nor stars can be seen. In summer it is so insufferably hot that till the cool of the evening there is no stirring out. Its situation, though on an eminence, never could be healthy; as between it and the Mediterranean, which is about three leagues distant, it is one continued marsh and swamp, ever covered with noxious vapours, which, when the sea-breeze sets in, blows directly on the town and the country adjacent; of the sad effects of which, its unhealthy inhabitants, with their yellow meagre looks, are the most convincing proofs.

The town has nothing curious to induce a stranger to stay longer in it than three or four days, except he arrives there about Christmas; at which time it is very gay, as all the nobility of Languedoc meet there at that time to settle the affairs of the province, though it is not the capital, but esteemed nearly the centre. The people in trade are reputed by the French themselves, to be the greatest extortioners, and sure not to let a penny escape them, be the means to come at it ever so unjust: as an instance, they had the conscience to charge an English sea officer, that died there, 300 livres (12 guineas and a half) for eight days lodging.

This city stands upon a rising ground fronting the Mediterranean, which is about

three leagues to the southward: on the other side is an agreeable plain, extending about the same distance towards the mountains of the Cevennes. It is reckoned well built, and what the French call bien percèe, yet the streets are in general narrow and the houses dark. The inhabitants are supposed to amount to 40,000: they are sociable, gay, and good tempered, and they trade very much in wine, cordials, oil, verdigris, and salt-petre. They have several manufactories in silk and woollen goods. There are many protestants here and at Nismes. The markets are well supplied with fish, poultry, butchers' meat, and game, at reasonable rates. The wine of the country is strong and harsh: Burgundy is dear, and so is the sweet wine of Frontignan, though made in the neighbourhood of Cette. Liquors of various sorts are compounded and distilled at Montpelier. The environs are extremely pleasant, having on one side La Place de Peyron, which forms a fine terrace. From thence, on a clear day, may be seen to the eastward the Alps, which form the frontiers of Italy; to the south-west the Pyrenean mountains, which form those of Spain, each esteemed 50 leagues distant: and to the south-ward a most extensive view of the Mediterranean. Not far from thence is a noble aqueduct, built like two bridges one above the other; by this water is brought from a mountain at three leagues distance, into two basons in a small elegant temple at the west end of the place; and the king's garden, where on certain days public lectures are held on botany. On the other side of the town is the esplanade, a beautiful walk, bordered on each side by olive trees, from whence there is a pleasing prospect of the sea and the country adjacent to the town; near which is the citadel, a place of no strength, though well walled in, as it is commanded by several rising grounds, and has only a dry ditch. There are commonly kept there four battalions of infantry.

Carcassone is celebrated in the history of the Albigenses.

Pamiers is a handsome town on the river Arrege.

Foix has a manufacture of coarse woollen cloths, and some copper works, that metal being a considerable object of commerce.

Alet is remarkable for its baths, and for grains of gold and silver found in the stream which runs from the Pyrenees, at the foot of which it stands, and from which the Romans formerly dugigold.

Alby is an ancient town. In the environs are beautiful walks, and the adjacent country is very fertile, producing various kinds of grain, excellent wines, flax, hemp, saffron, aniseed, and wood. Here are also manufactories of stockings, shalloons, and coarse woollens.

Nismes is an ancient and flourishing town. It has such a number of manufactories of cloth of gold and silk, and of stuffs, formerly know by the name of serge of Nismes, as exceeds that of all the rest of the province. There are several monuments of antiquity, of which the amphitheatre is the principal, built by the Romans. The Maison Quarree, or the Square House is a piece of architecture of the Corinthian order, and one of the finest in the world. The temple of Diana is in part gone to ruin. It was taken by the English in 1417. The inhabitants were all Calvinists; but Louis XIV demolished their church in 1685, and built a castle to keep them in awe. It is seated

in a delightful plain, abounding in wine, oil, game, and cattle. It contains a great number of venerable relics of Roman antiquity and grandeur, for which it is remarkable, and for its delightful situation.

Port St. Esprit derives its name from one of the finest bridges in France. It is over the river Rhone, is 840 yards long, and has 26 arches. Every pier is pierced with an aperture in order to facilitate the passage of the water when the river is high.

Uzes abounds in corn, cattle, and excellent wine; as well as oil and silk.

Viverns is an old little town, seated among rocks, on one of which the cathedral is built.

Puy has manufactories of lace and silk stuffs.

At Mende are manufactories of serges. The fountains of this city and one of the steeples of its cathedral, are remarkable.

Marseilles, a strong sea-port, and the richest town of Provence, in France. Here is a good harbour, where the French galleys are stationed; for it will not admit large men of war. The entrance of the harbour, which is extremely narrow and surrounded by lofty mountains, protects and shelters vessels during the most violent storms. The port itself forms a delightful walk even in the middle of winter, as it is open to the southern sun, and crowded with vast numbers of people, not only of all European nations, but of Turks, Greeks, and natives of the coast of Barbary. The whole scene is one of the most agreeable that can be imagined, if the chains of the galley slaves heard among the hum of business did not tincture it with the hateful idea of slavery. The galleys themselves, useless and neglected, rot peaceably in their respective stations; and it is said that no others will ever be constructed to supply their place, as they have long ceased to be of any utility to the state, and scarcely even navigable in severe weather. Marseilles pretends to the most remote antiquity; a colony of Phocians, in ages unknown, having given it birth. It is divided into the Old town and the New; which are separated by a street, bordered with trees on each side. The old town is one of the most ill built of any in Europe. The new has sprung up since the commencement of the 18th century, and has all that regularity, elegance, and convenience, which distinguish the present times. It is said to contain 100,000 inhabitants, and is one of the most trading towns in France. Without the walls is the castle of Notre Dame, which is very well fortified. It is a bishop's see, and there is a French academy; it having been noted at all times for men of learning.

In 1660, Lewis XIV. built the citadel and fort St. John, to keep the inhabitants in awe because they pretended to be free. The Jesuits had a very fine observatory here; and in the arsenal, built not long ago, there are arms for 40,000 men. In the House of Discipline they weave gold, silver, and silk brocades. The drugs are brought thither from all parts of the world.

Arles is celebrated for its antiquities, both within and without the city. Those of which any remains are now to be seen are the amphitheatre, the obelisk, the Elysian fields, the sepulchres, columns with their capitals, busts, pedestals, aqueducts, with some remains of the capital, and the temples of their gods. The other antient monuments

are entirely destroyed. Under the amphitheatre, in 1651, they found the statue of Venus, which was worshipped by this city, and has since been carried off to Versailles. It is a master-piece which will be always admired by connoisseurs.

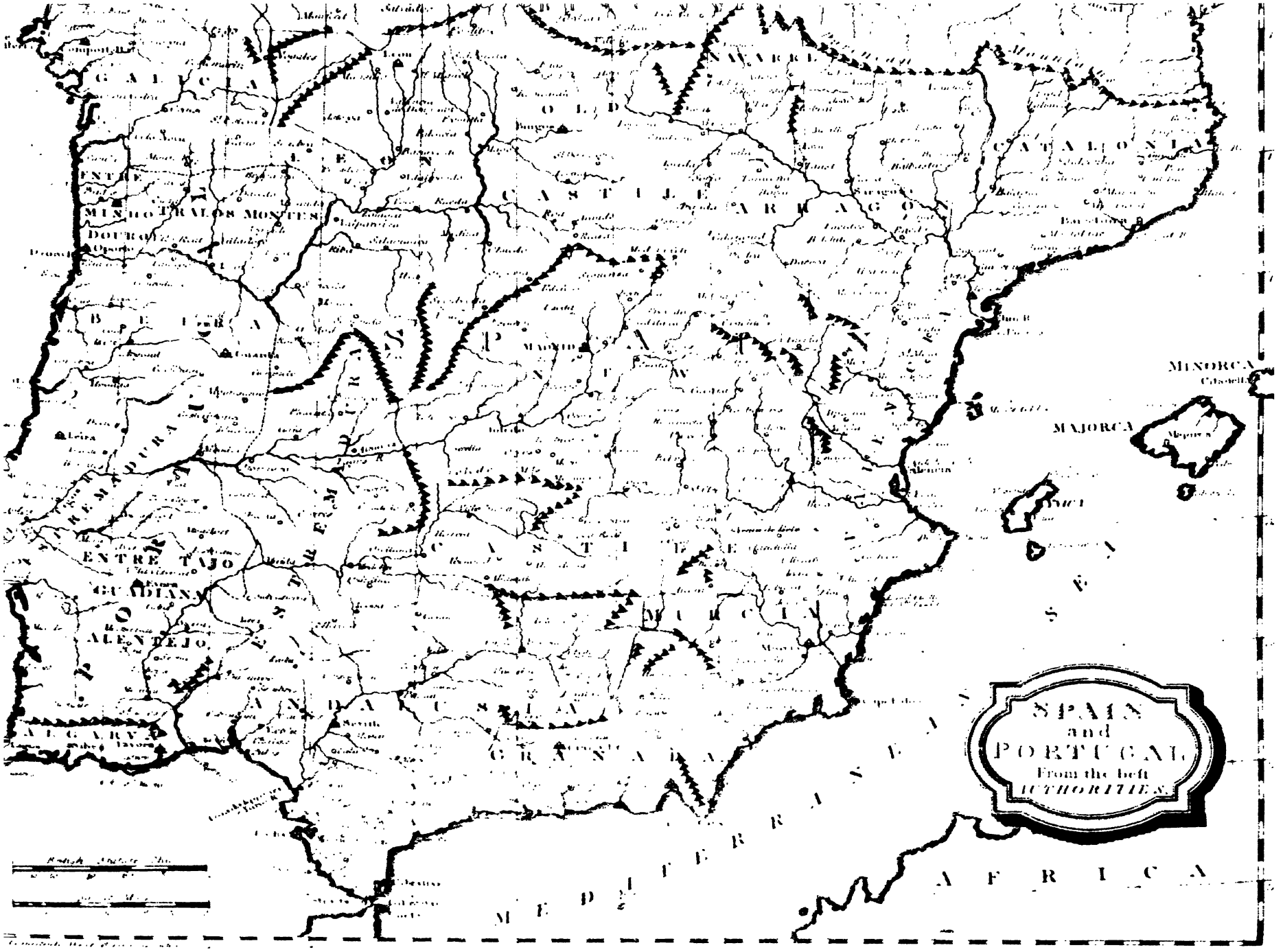
The amphitheatre is one of the most remarkable pieces of antiquity. It was built by the Romans but the time is unknown, though some say by Julius Cæsar. It is of an oval form; and about 400 yards in circumference, and the front is 34 yards in height. The middle, called the Arena, is 142 yards wide and 104 broad. The porticos or piazzas are three stories, built with stone of a prodigious size. Each of them consist of 60 arches, which still remain; and the walls are of a surprising thickness, but gone to decay.

The Pagan's burying place, called the Elysian Fields, is without the city, upon an agreeable hill, divided into two parts. The first called Moulaires, has very few tombs, they having been broken to build the walls of gardens, which are made in that place. The second called Eliscamp, contains a great number.

Antibes is celebrated for the excellent fruit that grows in its territory.

Toulon is a celebrated city and sea-port. Its inhabitants are computed at 80,000. It is divided in the Old Quarter and the New Quarter. The first, which is very ill built, has nothing remarkable in it but the Rue aux Arbres, the Tree-street, which is a kind of mall, and the town-house; the gate of this is surrounded by a balcony, which is supported by two Termini, the master-pieces of the celebrated Puget. The new quarter, which forms as it were a second city, contains, besides the magnificent works constructed in the reign of Lewis XIV. many fine houses, and a grand oblong square, lined with trees, and serving as a parade. The merchant's haven along which extends a noble quay, on which stands the town-house, is protected by two moles, begun by Henry IV. The new haven was constructed by Lewis XIV. as were the fortifications of the city. In the front of this haven is an arsenal, containing all the places necessary for the construction and fitting out of vessels. The first object that appears is a rope-walk, entirely arched, extending as far as the eye can reach, and built after the designs of Vauban; here cables are made, and above is a place for the preparation of hemp. Here likewise is the armoury for muskets, pistols, halberds, &c. In the park of artillery are cannons placed on piles, bombs, grenades, mortars, and balls of various kinds, ranged in wonderful order. The long sail room, the foundery for cannon, the dock-yards, the basons, &c. are all worthy of observation. Both the new and old port have an outlet into the spacious outer road and harbour, which is surrounded by hills, and formed by nature almost circular. Its circuit is of very great extent, and the entrance is defended on both sides by a fort with strong batteries. In a word, the basons, docks, and arsenals at Toulon, warranted the remark of a foreigner that visited them in the late reign, "That the king is greater there than at Versailles." Toulon is the only mart in the Mediterranean for the re-exportation of the products of the East Indies.

Dauphine is bounded on the west by the Rhone, which separates it from Languedoc; on the south by Provence; on the east by Piedmont; on the north by Franche Compte.


SPAIN
and
PORTUGAL
From the best
AUTHORITIES.
GALICIA
LEON
OLD
CASTILE
NAVARRE
CATALONIA
ARRAGON
ENTRE
MINHO
DOURO
TRALOS MONTES
BEIRA
ESTREMADURA
ENTRE TAJO
GUADIANA
ALENTEJO
ALGARVE
ANDALUSIA
GRANADA
MURCIA
CASTILE
MINORCA
MAJORCA
AFRICA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA

The CORRIDA DE TOROS, or BULL-FIGHT in SPAIN

In some places it is very fertile; and produces corn, wine, olives, wood, copperas, silk, crystal, iron, and copper. But the greatest part of the province is barren, and the inhabitants are obliged to go into other countries for subsistence.

The mountains abound in simples, and game of all sorts, and produce fir-trees proper for masts.

The principal towns are Grenoble, Vienne, Die, St. Paul, Embrun, Gap, and Briançon. Grenoble is a large, populous, and antient town. It contains a great number of handsome structures; particularly the churches and convents. The leather and gloves that are made here are highly esteemed.

Vienne is an antient and considerable town on the left bank of the Rhone. Its commerce consists in wines, silks, and cutlery. The wines of Cote, Rotie, and the Hermitage are produced in the neighbourhood of Vienne.

Embrun is one of the most elevated towns in Europe, being seated on a craggy hill, near the river Durance.

Gap is seated on the small river Bene, at the foot of a mountain, in which some mineral waters are found that are deemed febrifuge. At Briançon is a fine bridge over the Durance. Manna is gathered in this neighbourhood, on the leaves and branches of a sort of pine, and on making incisions in its bark.

Before we conclude our survey of France it remains to describe the territories of Avignon and Orange, which are situated between Provence, Dauphine, and the Rhone. Avignon was for several centuries subject to the pope; but was after the revolution annexed to France. It contains besides the capital, of the same name, Caprentras, Vaison, and Cavaillon.

Avignon is a large handsome town, advantageously seated on the Rhone.

Carpentras stands at the foot of a mountain on the river Auson.

Vaison stands near the ruins of the antient Vaison, one of the largest cities in Gaul.

The principality of Orange has given a title to the stadtholder of Holland, to whom it formerly belonged. The city of Orange is an antient and considerable town. It was an important place in the time of the Romans. The triumphal arch which was formerly within its limits was erected by Caius Marius and Lutatius Catulus, after the victory which they obtained over the Cimbri and the Teutones. Here are also the ruins of an amphitheatre, some aqueducts, and other antiquities, which have escaped the fury of the Goths and Saracens.

Before we proceed to the description of Spain, it may be proper to notice the Pyrenees, that ridge of mountains that separates Spain from France. They extend from the Mediterranean Sea to the ocean, about 212 miles. They are generally supposed to be as high as the Alps, but not so difficult to pass.

SPAIN.

Spain is bounded on the north by France, on the east by the Mediterranean, on the

south by the straits of Gibraltar, and on the west by the Atlantic and the kingdom of Portugal.

Spain enjoys a pure and serene air, except during the equinoctial rains; but in the summer the southern provinces suffer with extreme heat. The refreshing breezes that come from the different ridges of mountains are very beneficial to the inhabitants. In the provinces of Biscay, Navarre, Arragon, and Catalonia, the winter is frequently severe. The soil is very fertile, but its cultivation is neglected: it yields where the requisite labour is bestowed, fine wheat, barley, saffron, honey, silk, salt-petre, barillas, hemp, sugar-canes, lemons, oranges, citrons, almonds, and all the most delicious fruits that are found in Italy and France. The wines are in high esteem. Their horses are remarkably swift; their mules are excellent, and the wool of their sheep is the finest in Europe. Here were anciently mines of gold and silver which are now neglected, but cornelions, agate, jacinth, loadstones, turquois-stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, sulphur, alum, calamine, crystal; marbles of several kinds, porphyry, the finest jasper, diamonds, emeralds, and amethysts are found here.

It is divided into 14 provinces, viz. New Castile, Old Castile, Leon, Gallicia, Asturia, Biscay, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Mercia, Valentia, Graneda, Andalusia, and Estremadura.

New Castile is bounded on the north by Old Castile, on the east by Arragon and Valencia, on the south by Murcia and Andalusia, and on the west by Leon. This province as well as Old Castile, is very well watered with rivers, and the air is generally pure and healthy; but the land is mountainous, dry, and uncultivated, through the laziness of the inhabitants. The north part produces fruits and woad for dying, and the rich pastures of the south feed great numbers of sheep that afford excellent wool.

The principal places are Madrid, the capital, Toledo, Escurial, Alcala, Guadalaxara. Molina, Huete, Cuenca, Ocana, Talavera, Consuegra, Calatrava, Cividad, Real, Alcarez, Chinchilla, and Villera.

Madrid is the capital of the whole kingdom, though it never had the title of a city. It stands in the centre of a large plain, surrounded with mountains, and in the very heart of Spain, on the banks of the little river Manzanares, which is always very low and shallow, except when it is swelled by the melting of the snow on the mountains. The city is in general well laid out; the streets are very handsome; and the houses are fair and lofty, but built of brick, with lattice windows, excepting those of the rich, who have glass in their windows; only, during the summer-heats, they use gauze, or some such thin stuff, instead of it, to let in the fresh air. There are two stately bridges here over the Manzanares, a great many magnificent churches, convents, hospitals, and palaces. The royal palace, which stands on the west side of the town, on an eminence, is spacious and magnificent, consisting of three courts, and commanding a fine prospect. At the east end of the town is the prado, or pardo; which is a delightful plain, planted with regular rows of poplar-trees, and watered with a great many fountains; where the nobility and gentry take the air on horseback, or in their coaches; and the common people on foot, or divert themselves with a variety of sports and exercises. Almost all the streets of

Madrid are straight, wide, clean, and well paved. The largest and most frequented are the street of Alcala, that of Atochia, that of Toledo, and the Calle-grande, or great street. Madrid has also several squares, which are in general not very regular. The principal are those of San Joachin, Sol Lasginitas, San Domingo, La Cevado, and the Plaza Mayor. The latter especially deserves notice for its spaciousness and regularity, and the elegant and lofty houses it contains. It is 1536 feet in circuit. The houses, of which there are 136, are of five stories, ornamented with balconies; the first of which, supported by pillars, forms a piazza round the square, where the inhabitants may walk under cover. In the middle of the square a market is kept. The streets and squares of Madrid, except the Plaza Mayor, which has been just described, are ornamented with fountains in a very ill taste. Those most to be distinguished in this particular, are the fountain of the small irregular square, called Plaza di Antonio Martin, and that of the square named Puerta del Sol. The others are not more magnificent, though less ridiculous. The water of all these fountains is excellent; and the air of Madrid, though the weather be variable and uncertain, is extremely pure. It was this purity of the air and excellent quality of the water, which induced Philip II. and his successors to fix their residence in this city. It is also well supplied with provisions of all kinds, at reasonable rates; and the court, with the resort and residence of the quality, and the high colleges and offices that are kept here, occasion a brisk trade and circulation of money.

The sacred edifices in this city have nothing remarkable in their architecture: those of St. Pasqual, St. Isabella, and the Carmelites, contain highly valuable collections of pictures, which may be seen with admiration, even after paintings of the Escurial and the new palace. The church of St. Isidro, which heretofore belonged to the Jesuits, has a portal, which has escaped the contagion of the age in which it was built. There is another church much more modern, which on account of its mass has a venerable appearance, but which true taste may justly disavow: it is that of St. Salesas, or the Visitation, founded by Ferdinand VI. and the queen Barbara, his wife. The convent of St. Francis has already been some years building, and there are hopes that it will be one of the finest productions of architecture in the capital. Besides a variety of charitable foundations, there are here three confraternities, the revenues of which are appropriated to the succour of the wretched; and an institution similar to the Mont de Pieté in Paris, the principal object of which is to advance money to the necessitous.

The city of Madrid contains 15 gates, 18 parish, 35 convents of monks, and 31 of nuns; 39 colleges, hospitals, or houses of charity; 7398 dwelling-houses, and about 140,000 inhabitants. The Lombard traveller, Father Caimo, tells us that 50,000 sheep and 12,000 oxen are annually consumed there; to which his editor has added a ludicrous estimate of the onions and leeks devoured there, which he says amount to 970,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,045. But this writer (M. Bourgoanne observes) would not at present have any reason to complain of the disagreeable smells of the streets, nor would he find all the perfumes of Arabia necessary to defend himself from them. By the vigilance of the modern police, for which (M. Bourgoanne informs us) it is indebted to the count D'Aranda, it is rendered one of the cleanest cities in Europe.

There are four academies in Madrid. The first is the Spanish academy founded in 1714, in imitation of the French academy, and consisting of 24 members, including the president. Its device is a crucible on burning coals, with the motto, limpia, fixa, y da esplendor; it purifies, fixes, and gives lustre. Its first object was the compilation of a dictionary of the Spanish language, which was published in six volumes folio, and of which a new edition, with great additions, has been lately put to the press. The same academy is also employed on a superb edition of Don Quixote, adorned with elegant engravings, far superior to the last, and collated with all the former editions. The second is the academy of history; which owes its origin to a society of individuals, the object of whose meetings was to preserve and illustrate the historical monuments of the kingdom of Spain. Their labours met the approbation of Philip V. who in 1738, confirmed their statutes by a royal cedula. This academy consists of 24 members, including the president, secretary, and censor. Its device is a river at its source; and the motto, In patriam populumque fluit. The other two academies are the academy of the fine arts, painting, sculpture, and architecture; and the academy of medicine. The latter is held in no great esteem.

The environs of Madrid contain several royal seats; among which are El Buen Retiro, Casa del Campo, Florida, Le Pardo, Sarsuela, and St. Ildefonso; but the most magnificent, not only in this country, but perhaps in the whole world, is the Escurial, which takes its name from a small village, near which it stands, about 22 miles north-west from Madrid. In this village is a monastery, in the form of a gridiron, built by Philip the II. of Spain, in 1563, and accounted by Spaniards the eighth wonder of the world. It consists of a royal palace, a church, built after the plan of St. Peter's at Rome, cloisters, a college, library, shops of different artists, apartments for a great number of people, beautiful walks, large alleys, an extensive park and fine gardens, adorned with a vast number of fountains. It stands on a dry barren country, surrounded by rugged mountains, and where nothing grows, but what is cultivated with extraordinary care. It is built of grey stones, found in the neighbourhood, which was the principal reason of its being erected in so disagreeable a situation. This structure was 22 years in building, and cost 6,000,000 of crowns. The most remarkable part is the vaulted chapel, wherein is a magnificent sepulchre, called the Pantheon, similar to that at Rome, and thought by some to be the most curious piece of architecture in the world.

Toledo is an antient and trading city, formerly the capital of New Castile. About two centuries ago it is said to have contained more than 200,000 inhabitants; but they are now dimished to 20,000 or at most to 30,000. It is advantageously seated on the river Tajo, which surrounds it on two sides; and on the land side it has an antient wall, built by a Gothic king, and flanked with 100 towers. It is seated on a mountain, which renders the streets uneven, and which are narrow; but the houses are fine, and there are a great number of superb structures, besides 17 public squares, where the markets are kept. The finest buildings are the royal castle and the cathedral church; which last is the richest and most considerable in Spain. It is seated in the middle of the city, joining to a handsome street, with a fine square before it. Several of the gates are very

large, and of bronze. There is also a superb steeple, extremely high, from whence there is a very distant prospect. The Sagrariro, or principal chapel, is a real treasury, in which are 15 large cabinets let into the wall, full of prodigious quantities of gold and silver vessels, and other works. There are two mitres of silver gilt, set all over with pearls and precious stones; with three collars of massy gold, enriched in like manner. There are two bracelets and an imperial crown of the Virgin Mary, consisting of large diamonds and other jewels. The weight of the gold in the crown is fifteen pounds. The vessel which contains the consecrated wafer is of silver gilt, as high as a man, and so heavy that it requires 30 men to carry it; within it is another of pure gold, enriched with jewels. Here are 38 religious houses, most of which are worthy of a traveller's notice, with many other sacred buildings, a great number of churches belonging to 27 parishes, and some hospitals. Without the town are the remains of an amphitheatre, and other antiquities.

Toledo is an archbishop's see, and the seat of the primate of Spain. His revenue is said to be worth 400,000 ducats, but there are large deductions to be made from it. It pays 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Escurial, besides several other pensions. Toledo has also an university. It was formerly celebrated for the exquisite temper of the sword blades made there.

Alcala de Henarez, the antient Complutum, a Roman colony, is pleasantly situated on the banks of the Henarez, over which there is a stately bridge. The first Polyglot bible was printed here, at the expence of Cardinal Ximines.

Talavera stands in a valley abounding in corn, fruits, and wine.

The inhabitants of Clvidad Real are noted for dressing glove-leather.

Alcarez has a remarkably antient aqueduct.

Old Cistile, beside Burgos its capital, contains Valladolid, Aranda, Avila, Segovia, Siguenza, Osma, Soria, Calahorra, and Logronno.

Burgois is seated partly on a mountain, and extends to the river Aranzon. The squares, public buildings, and fountains are fine, and the walks agreeable. The arts and sciences are cultivated here, and a great variety of trades are carried on.

Valladolid is an antient, large, and populous city, with a bishop's see and university. It is surrounded with strong walls, embellished with handsome buildings, large public squares, piazzas, and fountains. It is large and populous, containing 11,000 houses, with fine long and broad streets, and large high houses; adorned with balconies. The market-place, called El Campo, is 700 paces in circumference, surrounded with a great number of convents, and is the place where the fairs are kept. There is another square in the middle of the city, surrounded with handsome brick houses, having under them piazzas, where people may walk dry in all weathers. Within these piazzas, merchants and tradesmen keep their shops. All the houses are of the same height, being four stories; and there are balconies at every window, of iron gilt. In the whole there are 70 monasteries and nunneries; the finest of which is that of the Dominicans, remarkable for its church, which is one of the most magnificent in the city. The kings resided a long while at this place; and the royal palace, which still remains, is of very large extent,

though but two stories high; within are fine paintings of various kinds, and at one of the corners a curious clock, made in the same manner as that of Strasburg. The house of the inquisition is an odd sort of structure, for there are no windows, but a few holes to let in the light. The environs of the city are a fine plain, covered with gardens, orchards, vineyards, meadows, and fields.

Avila is an antient city. It has an university, and a manufactory of fine cloth; is seated in a large plain, and surrounded by mountains covered with fruit-trees and vineyards. Segovia is an antient, large, rich, populous, and handsome city. The fine Spanish wool is here manufactured into the best cloth that is made in Spain. Another branch of their trade is very fine paper. The cathedral stands on one side of the great square, and contains the statue of the Virgin Mary in massy silver. The castle seated in the highest part of the town, is covered with lead, and has 16 rooms very richly adorned with tapestry, gilding, and ornaments of marble and porphyry. The royal chapel is magnificently gilded, and embellished with excellent paintings. The most remarkable structure is the mint, seated in a valley, surrounded by a river, on which are mills employed in coining, and which perform any operation almost instantaneously. The aqueduct is a work of the Romans, 3000 paces long, and supported by 177 arches; it still serves to convey water into the town.

Siguenza has an university consisting of several colleges; but the most considerable structure is the cathedral. The air is very cold in the winter, but they have plenty of wood for firing.

Logrono is an antient town, standing in a country which abounds in the necessaries of life.

The province of Leon is bounded on the north by Asturias, on the west by Gallicia and Portugal, on the south by Estramadura, and on the east by the two Castiles. It produces all the necessaries of life. Its capital of the same name, was built by the Romans in the time of Galba. It was formerly richer and more populous than at present and has the finest cathedral in all Spain.

Salamanca, an antient, large, rich, and populous city of Spain, in the kingdom of Leon, is situated on the river Tormes, about 75 miles west from Madrid. It is said to have been founded by Teucer the son of Telamon, who called it Salamis or Salamantica, in memory of the antient Salamis. Here is an university, the greatest in Spain, and perhaps inferior to none in the whole world, in respect at least to its revenues, buildings, number of scholars and masters. Here are also many grand and magnificent palaces, squares, convents, churches, colleges, chapels, and hospitals. The bishop of this country is suffragan, to the archbishop of Compostella, and has a yearly revenue of 1000 ducats. A Roman way leads from hence to Merida and Seville, and there is an old Roman bridge over the river. Of the colleges of the university four are appropriated to young men of quality; and near it is an infirmary for poor sick scholars.

Placentia stands on a pleasant plain surrounded by mountains. Astorga, Carrion, Palencia, Toro, Zamora, Alva, Cividad, Rodrigo, and Coria, are places of note in the province of Leon.

Gallicia has the ocean on the north and west; Portugal on the south, Asturias; and Leon on the east. Along its extensive coast the air is temperate; but cold and moist in the inland country.

Here are produced wine, flax, and citrons, wood for ship building, excellent pasture; but notwithstanding these advantages, the province is thinly inhabited. The principal places are Compostella, Bayona, Tuy, Orense, Lugo, Corrynna, Ferrol, and Mondonedo.

Compostella, the capital, has an archbishop's see, and an university. The public squares and the churches, especially the cathedral, are very magnificent. It has a great number of monastic buildings. The fable that the body of St. James lies buried here, draws a great number of pilgrims from most parts of papal Christendom. They walk in procession to the church, and visit his wooden image, which stands on the great altar, and is illuminated with 40 or 50 wax candles. They kiss it three times with a very respectful reverence, and then put their hats on its head. In the church are 30 silver lamps always lighted, and six chandeliers of silver five feet high.

Tuy stands on the top of a mountain, near the river Minho, in a pleasant, fertile, and well cultivated country, where there are the richest prospects of gardens, vineyards, orchards, and corn-fields.

Lugo is celebrated for some boiling hot springs.

Ferrol has a good harbour, and is much frequented by the Spanish fleet in time of war.

Asturia, or as it is usually stiled, the Asturias, is tolerably fertile, but thinly inhabited. Oriedo, its capital, has an university. Santillana and Andero are sea-ports of some note.

Biscay is bounded on the north by the bay of Biscay; on the south by Old Castile; on the west by Asturias; and on the east by Navarre. This country in general is mountainous and barren; but in some places it produces corn, and every where a great quantity of apples, oranges, and citrons. Cider is the common drink of the inhabitants. Besides this, they have wine, called chacolina, which is pleasant, but will not keep long, and therefore is used instead of small beer. Their valleys produce a little flax, and the hills an abundance of timber for shipping. Their greatest riches are produced by their mines of iron, which metal is exceedingly good, and is exported to all parts. Their cutlers are particularly famous for their swords and knives.

The mountains with which this province abounds, have in all ages afforded the inhabitants temptations and opportunities of withdrawing from every yoke that has been attempted to be laid upon them. Their language is accounted aboriginal, and unmixed with either Latin, French, or Spanish; which latter is scarcely understood by any of the peasants. The Biscayers are stout, brave, and choleric; produce excellent soldiers and seamen, possess great privileges, and watch over them with a jealous eye. They have no bishops in the province, and stile the king only lord of Biscay. The most singular thing in the dress of their men is, that they wrap a piece of coarse gray or black woollen cloth round their legs, and fasten it on with many turns of tape. The garb

of the women is neat and pastoral; their hair falls in long plaits down their backs; and a veil or handkerchief twisted round in a very coquetish manner serves them for a head-dress. On Sundays they usually wear white tied with rose coloured knots. The principal towns are Bilboa, Victoria, St. Sebastian, and Fontarabia.

Bilboa is a large, handsome, and rich town, with a well frequented harbour. Its air is remarkably wholesome, and the surrounding country very fertile. No slaves are permitted here, nor any families that are not of pure christian extraction. Their exports are wool and cutlery ware, particularly sword-blades.

St. Sebastian has a good harbour, secured by two moles. The streets are long, broad, and straight; and paved with white flag-stones. The houses are handsome, the churches neat, and the environs pleasant. It carries on a great trade, and is so populous that several families are obliged to lodge in the same house. Their greatest trade consists in iron and steel, which some take to be the best in Europe; they also deal in wool, which comes from Old Castile.

Fontarabia is built in the form of an amphitheatre, on the declivity of a hill, and surrounded on the land side by the Pyrenean mountains. It is a small town with a good harbour, though dry at low water.

The air of Navarre is temperate and wholesome, and though a mountainous country, it is pretty fertile, abounds with game, and has several iron-mines. The principal places are Pampeluna, Estella, Viana and Tudela.

Pampeluna is a handsome city, which carries on a considerable trade.

Tudela is remarkable for a beautiful bridge over the Ebro.

Arragon is bounded on the north by France, on the east by Catalonia, on the south by Valentia, and on the west by Navarre and the two Castiles. It is mountainous, barren, ill cultivated, and thinly peopled. Here are several mines of iron, and plenty of game in the woods.

Saragossa, the chief city of Arragon, has an archbishop's see, an university, and a court of inquisition. It is a large handsome city, with broad, clean, and well paved streets, and houses from three to six stories high. Among its public buildings, of which many are magnificent, are 17 churches and 14 handsome monasteries. In Holy street, which is so wide that it resembles a square and admits room for their bull feasts, several noble families reside, particularly that of the viceroy. The church of Nuestra signora del pilar (our lady of the pillar) is a place of great resort for Spanish devotees. They exhibit a Madona here, which is said to have been miraculously obtained. It stands on a marble pillar, in a place which is so dark that it could not be seen without the assistance of lamps. The image is richly ornamented with gold and jewels, its crown containing many precious stones of an inestimable price. The town-house is a noble edifice, which is decorated with pictures of all the kings of Arragon, and the image of St. Geo[illegible] on horseback with a dragon of white marble under him. Here is also a wooden bridge over the Ebro very celebrated for its beauty.

Calatajud stands in a fertile valley, and is commanded by a castle on a rock.

Teruel is a considerable town, and enjoys the advantage of being erected in a valley covered with gardens and fruit-trees.

Other towns in this province are Tarrazona, Borja, Darocca, Albunazin, Jaca, Huesca and Balaqueer.

Catalonia is bounded on the north by France, on the east and south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by Arragon and Valencia. It is mountainous, but watered by many rivers. The fertile and cultivated spots produce corn, wine, oil, pulse, flax, and hemp, sufficient for the inhabitants; and the mountains are covered with large forests of tall trees, such as the oak, the ever-green oak, the beech, the pine, the fir, the chesnut, and many others; with cork trees, shrubs, and medicinal plants. Here are several quarries of marble of all colours, crystals, amethysts, alabaster and lapis lazuli; mines of iron, tin, lead, alum, vitriol, and salt; and even small quantities of gold-dust among the sands of two or three of the rivers. Fisheries for coral are carried on in the coast.

Barcelona is a handsome, rich, and strong city of Spain, in the province of Catalonia, of which it is the capital. This city was originally founded by Hamilcar Barcas, and from him called Barcino. It was reduced by the Romans, and continued subject to them till the kingdom of Spain was over-run by the Goths and Vandals, and afterwards by the Saracens or Moors. In the beginning of the 9th century, Barcelona was in the hands of the Moors, and under the government of one Zade. This governor having more than once abused the clemency of Charlemagne, at last irritated Louis, king of Aquitain, and son to Charles, to such a degree, that he gave orders to his generals to invest the city, and not to rise from before it till they had put Zade into his hands. The Moor made an obstinate resistance, so that the siege lasted many months: at last, finding it impossible to preserve the city much longer, and being destitute of all hopes of relief, he determined, or rather was compelled by the inhabitants, to go to the Christian camp and implore the emperor's mercy; but here he was no sooner arrived, than he was arrested and carried prisoner to Charlemagne, who condemned him to perpetual banishment. The people gaining nothing by this expedient, continued to hold out for six weeks longer, when the king of Aquitain himself took the command of the siege. To him they made a proposal, that if he would allow them to march out and go where they pleased, they would surrender the place. Louis having agreed to this, made his public entry into Barcelona, where he formed a design of extending his father's dominions as far as the Ebro; but being recalled before he put his design into execution, he appointed one Bera counts of Barcelona. The city continued subject to him and his successors, who still enjoyed the title of counts of Barcelona, from the year 802 to 1131; during which time we find nothing remarkable, except that the city was once taken by the Moors, but soon after re-taken by the assistance of Louis IV. king of France. In 1131 it was united to the crown of Arragon, by the marriage of Don Raymond V. count of Barcelona, with the daughter of Don Ramiro the Monk, king of Arragon. In 1465 the Catalonians revolted against Don Juan XI. king of Arragon, out of hatred to his queen Donna Juanna; the consequence of which was, that Barcelona was besieged by that monarch in 1471. Various efforts were made by Louis XI. of France, and the duke of Lorrain, in order to raise the siege but without effect. Things at length were brought

to the utmost extremity, when the king offered to pardon them all, without the smallest punishment either in person or property, provided they would submit; but these terms they rejected, chiefly through the influence of the count de Pailhars, who had been pardoned the year before. The army on the other hand, was very earnest on being led on to the assault in hopes of plunder. The king, however, wrote a letter to the citizens, dated the 6th of October, in terms as affectionate as if he had been writing to his children, bewailing the miseries they had brought on themselves, and concluding with a protestation, that they, and not he, must be answerable for the consequences. Upon this, at the persuasion of a priest who had a reputation of sanctity, they sent deputies to the king, and made capitulation on the 17th of the same month. In this the king acknowledged they had taken up arms on just motives; and forgave every body except Pailhars, who was, however, suffered to escape. On the 22nd of October the king made his entry into the city, and confirmed all their antient privileges. In 1697 Barcelona was taken by the French after a bloody siege of 52 days; and the loss of this city had a considerable effect in disposing the Spaniards to agree to the treaty of Ryswick. In queen Anne's time it was taken by the allies, under the earl of Peterborough; but being afterwards shamefully denied assistance by the English ministry, was obliged to submit to Philip V. by whom the whole province was deprived of its antient privileges.

Barcelona is situated by the sea-side, of a form between a square and an oval. It is surrounded by a good brick-wall, round which is another, with 14 bastions, horn-works, ramparts, and ditches; the ramparts are high, broad, and spacious, insomuch that 100 coaches may be seen every evening driving thereon for pleasure. The city is divided into two parts, the Old and the New, which are separated from each other by a wall and a large ditch; the streets are handsome, well paved with large stones, wide, and very clean. It is the residence of a viceroy, is a bishop's see, has a fine university, a mint, a good port, and is adorned with handsome buildings. Here is a court of inquisition, which the inhabitants look upon as an advantage.

The remarkable buildings are the cathedral, which is large, handsome, and adorned with two high towers, the church of the Virgin Mary, the palaces of the bishop, that of the inquisition, and several religious houses: add to these the palace of the viceroy; the arsenal, which contains arms for 1000 men; the exchange, where the merchants meet; the tersana, where they build the galleys; and the palace, where the nobility of the country meet, called La Casa de la Deputation. The last is built with fine large freestone, and adorned with columns of marble: there is in it a large hall, with gilt ceiling and a handsome portico, wherein persons may either walk or sit; the hall is adorned with the portraits of all the counts of Barcelona. There are several fine squares, particularly that of St. Michael, into which all the great streets run. The port is wide, spacious, deep, and safe; defended on the one side by a great mole, and on the other sheltered from the west wind by two mountains that advance into the sea, and form a kind of promontory: the mole is 750 paces long, with a quay, at the end of which is a light-house and a small fort. One of the mountains, called Mount Joy, is very high, and rises in the middle of the plain near the city: it is covered with gardens,

vineyards, groves of trees, and has a strong fort for the defence of the city. This mountain, being a rock, yields an inexhaustible quarry of fine, hard free-stone.

Barcelona is a place of great trade, on account of the conveniency of its harbour; and it has a manufacture of knives, greatly esteemed in Spain; as also of blankets. Here are also several glass-houses.

The inhabitants are diligent, and equally fit for labour and trade; they are also very civil to strangers. The women are well shaped, and as handsome as any in Spain; they are brisk and lively in their conversation, and more free and unrestrained in their behaviour than in other parts of Spain.

Urgel is pleasantly situated in the midst of corn-fields and vineyards.

Gironna is an antient and considerable town.

Vic is a declining town; but still celebrated for the beautiful portico of its cathedral.

Lerida is an antient and large town, with an university.

Tarragona is a very antient and celebrated port. It was built by the Phœnicians, and was accounted very powerful in the time of the Romans. Here are many grand monuments of antiquity. It is not so large as before the expulsion of the Moors, but it carries on a good trade.

Tortosa is a large town, with a small university. The entrance into this place is defended by a large bridge of boats on the river Ebro. It has fine buildings, among which the cathedral, the royal college of Dominicans, and the convent of the Carmelites, are the most remarkable. The country in which it is seated abounds both in vegetable and mineral productions. They manufacture very fine pottery, which resembles porcelain.

Valencia extends along the Mediterranean from Catalonia to Murcia. It is the most pleasant country in Spain, for here they enjoy almost a perpetual spring. It is watered by a great number of streams, which render it fertile in all the necessaries of life, especially fruits and wine. There are very rugged mountains, in which are mines of gold, silver, and alum. The inhabitants are very civil, but much gayer than in other parts of Spain.

Valencia, a city of Spain, capital of the province of the same name. It is a large place, containing about 12,000 persons within the walls, besides those in the suburbs, and in the pleasure gardens round about it, which amount to much the same number. It has an university, founded in 1492. It was taken from the Moors, in the 13th century, who were all obliged to leave it. The city is very handsome and pleasant, and adorned with very fine structures. The cathedral has a steeple 130 feet high, and one side of the choir is incrusted with alabaster, and adorned with very fine antient paintings. The high altar is covered with silver, and lighted with 14 silver lamps. The university consists of several colleges. The palace of the viceroy, that of Cinta, the monastery of St. Jerom, and the exchange, are all fine buildings. It has several good manufactories of cloth and silk, carried on with great industry and success; for even the very children are employed in spinning silk. There are several remains of antiquity, and it is pleasantly seated on the river Guadalvir, over which are five bridges. It is

56 miles from the sea; 110 miles north by east of Murcia; 160 south-west of Barcelona, and 130 east-south-east of Madrid.

Alicant is a small rich city, well known for wines and fruit. The English, Dutch, and Italians have consuls who reside here.

At increasing distances from the coast of Valentia lie the three Spanish islands Yrica, Majorca, and Minorca.

Yrica is mountainous, but fertile in corn, wines, and fruits, and remarkable for the large quantity of salt it produces. Its capital, of the same name, has a good harbour.

Majorca lies 56 miles farther to the east, and deserves, as to the face of the country and fertility of the soil, a similar character with the former island. Its capital, Majorca, is a large and rich town, consisting of about 6000 houses, built in an antique stile. The public squares, cathedral, royal palace, and several other buildings are magnificent.

Minorca is situated 50 miles north-east of Majorca. It produces very good mules, but is chiefly valuable for its harbour. Its principal places are Cittadella and Port Mahon.

In the province of Murcia it seldom rains, therefore the soil is dry, and produces but little of corn or wine; but there is plenty of oranges, lemons, citrons, olives, almonds, mulberries, rice, pulse, and sugar; it has also a great deal of silk. Murcia, the capital, is large, handsome, and populous. It has a superb cathedral, the stairs of whose steeple are so contrived, that a man may ride up to the top, either on horseback or in a coach.

Carthagena has the best harbour in Spain: great quantities of mackerel are caught in the gulf.

The next province along the Mediterranean is Granada, a mountainous country, with a good soil, ill cultivated. Here are produced corn, wine, oil, sugar, flax, hemp, fruits, honey, wax, and mulberry-trees, which feed a great number of silk-worms. The forests furnish gall-nuts, palm-trees, and oaks.

Granada contains its modern capital, of the same name, Alhambra, the residence of its Moorish kings, Huescar, Baca, Guadix, Almeria, Alpuxaras, Malaga, and Ronda.

Granada is a large, handsome, pleasant city, with many magnificent buildings.

Alhambra, the antient fortress and residence of the Moorish monarch of Granada, derives its name from the red colour of the materials which it was originally built with, Alhambra signifying a red house. It appears to a traveller a huge heap of as ugly buildings as can well be seen, all huddled together, seemingly without the least intention of forming one habitation out of them. The walls are entirely unornamented, all gravel and pebbles, daubed over with plaster by a very coarse hand; yet this is the palace of the Moorish kings of Granada, indisputably the most curious place within that exists in all Spain, perhaps in the world. In many countries may be seen excellent modern as well as antient architecture, both entire and in ruins; but nothing to be met with any where else can convey an idea of this edifice, except the decorations of an opera, or the tales of the genii

Passing round the corner of the emperor's palace, one is admitted at a plain unornamented door in a corner. "On my first visit," says Mr. Swinburne, "I confess I was struck with amazement, as I stept over the threshold, to find myself on a sudden transported into a species of fairy land. The first place you come to is the court called Communa or Del Mesucar, that is, the common baths; an oblong square, with a deep bason of clear water in the middle; two flights of marble steps leading down to the bottom; on each side a parterre of flowers, and a row of orange trees. Round the court runs a peristyle, paved with marble; the arches bear upon very slight pillars, in proportions and style different from all the regular orders of architecture. The ceilings and walls are incrustated with fret-work in stucco, so minute and intricate, that the most patient draughtsman would find it difficult to follow it, unless he made himself master of the general plan: this would facilitate the operation exceedingly; for all this work is frequently and regularly repeated at certain distances, and has been executed by means of square moulds applied successively, and the parts joined together with the utmost nicety. In every division are Arabic sentences, of different lengths, most of them expressive of the following meanings, "There is no conqueror but God;" or, "Obedience and honour to our Lord Abouabdoulah." The ceilings are gilt or painted, and time has caused no diminution in the freshness of their colours, though constantly exposed to the air; the lower part of the walls is mosaic, disposed in fantastic knots and festoons. A work so novel, so exquisitely finished, and so different from all he had ever seen, must afford a stranger the most agreeable sensations, while he tread this magic ground. The porches at the ends are more like grotto work, than any thing else to which they can be compared. That on the right hand opens into an octagon vault, under the emperor's palace, and forms a perfect whispering gallery, meant to be a communication between the offices of both houses."

"Opposite to the door of the Communa, through which you enter, is another, leading into the Quarto de los leones, or apartments of the lions, which is an oblong court, 100 feet in length and 50 in breadth, environed with a colonnade, seven feet broad on the sides and 10 at the end. Two porticoes or cabinets, about 15 feet square, project into the court at the two extremities; the square is paved with coloured tiles, the colonnade with white marble; the walls are covered five feet up from the ground with blue and yellow tiles, disposed chequerwise. Above and below is a border of small escutcheons, enamelled blue and gold, with an Arabic motto on a bend, signifying, "No conqueror but God." The columns that support the roof and gallery are of white marble, very slender, and fantastically adorned; they are nine feet high, including base and capital, and eight and a half inches diameter; they are very irregularly placed, sometimes singly, at others in groups of three, but more frequently two together. The width of the horse-shoe arches above them is four feet two inches for the larger ones, and three for the smaller. The ceiling of the portico is finished in a much finer and more complicated stile than that of the Communa, and the stucco is laid on the walls with inimitable delicacy; in the ceiling it is so artfully frosted and handled as to exceed belief. The capitals are of various designs, though each design is repeated several times in the cir-

cumference of the court, but not the least attention has been paid to placing them regularly, or opposite to each other. Not the smallest representation of animal life can be discovered amidst the varieties of foliages, grotesques, and strange ornaments. About each arch is a large square of arabesques, surrounded with a rim of characters, that are generally quotations from the Koran. Over the pillars is another square, of delightful filligree work. Higher up is a wooden rim, or kind of cornice, as much enriched with carving, as the stucco that covers the part underneath. Over this projects a roof of red tiles, the only thing that disfigures this beautiful square. This ugly covering is modern put on, by order of Mr. Wall, the late prime minister, who, a few years ago, gave the Alhambra a thorough repair. In Moorish times, the building was covered with large painted and glazed tiles, of which some few are still to be seen. In the centre of the court are twelve ill-made lions muzzled, their fore parts smooth, their hind parts rough, which bear upon their backs an enormous bason, out of which a lesser rises. While the pipes are kept in good order, a great volume of water was thrown up, that, falling down into the basons, passed through the beasts, and issued out of their mouths into a large reservoir, where it communicated by channels with the jet d'eaus in the apartments. This fountain is of white marble, embellished with many festoons, and Arabic distichs, thus translated.

"Seest thou not how the water flows copiously like the Nile?"

"This resembles a sea, washing over its shores, threatning shipwreck to the mariner."

"This water runs abundantly, to give drink to the lions."

"Terrible as the lion is our king in the day of battle."

"The Nile gives glory to the king, and the lofty mountains proclaim it."

"This garden is fertile in delights: God takes care that no noxious animal shall approach it."

"The fair princess that walks in this garden, covered with pearls, augments its beauty so much, that thou mayst doubt whether it be a fountain that flows, or the tears of her admirers."

Passing along the colonnade, and keeping on the south side, you come to a circular room, used by the men as a place for drinking coffee and sorbets in. A fountain in the middle refreshed the apartment in summer. The form of this hall, the elegance of its cupola, the cheerful distribution of light from above, and the exquisite manner in which the stucco is designed, painted, and finished, exceed all powers of description. Every thing in it inspires the most pleasing, voluptuous ideas; yet in this sweet retreat they pretend that Aboaabdoulah assembled the Abencerrages, and caused their heads to be struck off into the fountain. Continuing your walk round, you are next brought to a couple of rooms at the head of the court, which are supposed to have been tribunals or audience chamber.

Opposite to the Sala de los Abencerrages is the entrance into the Torre de las dos hermanas, or the tower of the two sisters; so named from two beautiful pieces of marble, laid as flags in the pavement. This gate exceeds all the rest in profusion of ornaments, and in beauty of prospect, which it affords through a range of apartments, where a mul-

titude of arches terminate in a large window open to the country. In a gleam of sunshine, the variety of tints and lights thrown upon this enfilade are uncommonly rich. The first hall is the concert-room, where the women sit; the musicians play above in four balconies. In the middle is a jet d'eau. The marble pavement is equal to the finest existing, for the size of the flags and evenness of the colour. The two sisters, which gave name to the room, are slabs that measure 15 feet by $7\frac{1}{2}$ without flaw or stain. The walls, up to a certain height, are mosaic, and above are divided into very neat compartments of stucco, all of one design, which is also followed in many of the adjacent halls and galleries. The ceiling is a fretted cove. To preserve this vaulted roof, as well as some of the other principal cupolas, the outward walls of the towers are raised 10 feet above the top of the dome, and support another roof over all, by which means no damage can ever be caused by wet weather, or excessive heat and cold. From this hall you pass round the little myrtle garden of Lindaraxa, into an additional building, made to the east end by Charles V. The rooms are small and low. His dear motto, Plus outré, appears on every beam. This leads to a little tower, projecting from the line of the north wall, called El tocador, or the dressing room of the sultana. It is a small square cabinet, in the middle of an open gallery, from which it receives light by a door and three windows. The look-out is charming. In one corner is a large marble flag, drilled full of holes, through which the smoke of perfumes ascended from furnaces below; and here, it is presumed, the Moorish queen was wont to sit to fumigate and sweeten her person. The emperor caused this pretty room to be painted with representations of his wars, and a great variety of grotesques, which appear to be copies, or at least imitations, of those in the loggie of the Vatican. From hence you go through a long passage to the hall of ambassadors, which is magnificently decorated with innumerable varieties of mosaics, and the mottos of all the kings of Granada. This long narrow antichamber opens into the Communa on the left hand, and on the right is the great audience hall in the tower of Comares; a noble apartment, 36 feet square, 36 high up to the cornice, and 18 from thence to the centre of the cupola. The walls on three sides are 15 feet thick, on the other nine; the lower range of windows 13 feet high. The whole wall is inlaid with mosaic of many colours, disposed in intricate knots, stars, and other figures. In every part various Arabic sentences are repeated.

Having thus completed the tour of the upper apartments, which are upon a level with the offices of the new palace, you descend to the lower floor, which consisted of bed-chambers and summer-rooms; the black stairs and passages, that facilitated the intercourse between them, are without number. The most remarkable room below is the king's bed-chamber, which communicated, by means of a gallery, with the upper story; The beds were placed in two alcoves, upon a raised pavement of blue and white tiles; but as it was repaired by Philip V. who passed some time here; it cannot be said how it may have been in former times. A fountain played in the middle to refresh the apartment in hot weather. Behind the alcoves are small doors, that conduct you to the royal baths. These consist of one small closet, with marble cisterns for washing children, two rooms for grown up persons, and vaults for boilers and furnaces that supplied the

baths with water, and the stoves with vapours. The troughs are formed of large slabs of white marble: the walls are beautified with party-coloured earthen ware; light is admitted by holes in the coved ceiling.

Hard by is a whispering gallery, and a kind of labyrinth, said to have been made for the diversion of the women and children. One of the passages of communication is fenced off with a strong iron grate, and called the prison of the sultana; but it seems more probable that it was put to prevent any body from climbing up into the women's quarter.

Under the council-room, is a long slip called the king's study; and adjoining to it are several vaults, said to be the place of burial of the royal family. In the year 1574, four sepulchres were opened; but as they contained nothing but bones and ashes, were immediately closed again.

This description of Alhambra may be finished, by observing how admirably every thing was planned and calculated for rendering this palace the most voluptuous of all retirements; what plentiful supplies of water were brought to refresh it in the hot months of summer; what a free circulation of air was contrived, by the judicious disposition of doors and windows; what shady gardens of aromatic trees; what noble views over the beautiful hills and fertile plains! No wonder the Moors regretted Granada; no wonder they still offer up prayers to God every Friday, for the recovery of this city, which they esteem a terrestrial paradise.

Baca is remarkable for nothing but the church, dedicated to the Virgin.

Almeria is a sea-port town, situated in a fine bay, at the mouth of the river Almeria. It was once the strongest place in Spain, but is now very little better than a village. The adjacent country is very fertile in vegetables, and rich in mineral productions.

The Alpuxaras are mountains inhabited by Moors, who have embraced the Christian religion, but retained their former manners and language. They cultivate the soil with diligence, and their labour is sufficiently rewarded by large quantities of fruit.

Antequiera is a handsome town, divided into two parts, the upper and the lower; the former standing on a hill, and the latter in a fertile plain, watered with a great number of brooks. There is a large quantity of salt in the mountain, and a spring famous for curing the gravel.

Malaga has a convenient harbour, and is enriched by a good trade. It is much frequented by the English and Dutch, who here load their vessels with fruits and wine.

Andalusia, is esteemed by many the most valuable province in Spain. There is a good air, fertile soil, and a great extent of sea coast, fit for commerce. Its chief towns are Seville, Ubeda, Anduxar, Jaen, Cordovia, Montilla, Alcala, Ecija, Carmona, Osuna, Medina Sidonia, Niebla, and the English fortress of Gibraltar.

Seville is an antient, rich, and handsome city, capital of Andalusia, and one of the most considerable in Spain. It is seated near the river Guadalquiver, is of a round form, and takes up more ground than Madrid, although it has not so many inhabitants. The Moors built an aqueduct, still to be seen, six miles in length. The cathedral is the largest in Spain; the steeple is of very curious workmanship and extremely high, con-

sisting of three towers, one above another, with galleries and balconies. Of the convents that of St Francis is the most curious, adorned with a very handsome public square, in the midst of which is a fine fountain. It contains 160 monks, beside 140 lay brethren. The university of Seville consists of many colleges; the professors enjoying rich pensions. Near the cathedral is the royal palace called Alcazar, which was partly built after the antique by the Moors, and partly in the modern taste, by king Pedro; it is a mile in extent, and flanked by large square towers, built with stones taken from the antient temple of Hercules. The exchange is a square building of the Tuscan order, each front 100 feet in length, and three stories high. The suburb stands on the other side of the river, over which is a long bridge of boats. In this suburb, that den of ecclesiastical tyranny, the house of the Inquisition is placed; and there are public walks where most of the inhabitants go to take the air. The town-house is adorned with a great number of statues, and there is a large square before it, with a fine fountain in the middle. There are 120 hospitals richly endowed. The pleasant situation of Seville, near the sea, renders it one of the most commercial towns of Spain. The East and West India companies have their houses here, when they are obliged to register themselves and their merchandise. Their ships indeed stop in the harbour of Cadiz, but their lading is carried thence to Seville; and there all the gold and silver is coined, there being above 600 men employed in the mint. The country about it is extremely fertile in corn, wine, &c. and there is abundance of oil; for to the west of the river is a grove of olive trees 30 miles in length. The Spaniards commonly say, Quen no ha visto Sevilla, no ha visto maravilla; He who has not seen Seville, has not seen a wonder. It is 45 miles from the sea, 112 W. of Granada, and 212 S. by W. of Madrid.

Anduxar is a pretty rich town, adorned with churches and convents, and inhabited by several families of high rank.

Cordovia stands in the middle of an extensive plain. Its circumference is large, but as it is not peopled in proportion to its extent, there are many orchards and gardens within its walls. The magnificent cathedral was formerly a mosque, and is now very rich in plate, each of the four silver candlesticks being worth 850 pounds. The trade of this town is flourishing, and consists of wine, silk, and leather. In the neighbourhood are abundance of oranges and lemons, and the best horses in Spain.

Alcala has abundance of springs, which furnish Seville with water by means of an aqueduct.

Carmona is an antient town. Its gate toward Seville is a very celebrated remain of antiquity.

Ossuna is a considerable town, with a university and an hospital.

Medina Sidonia is very antient.

Gibraltar is a promontory, or rather peninsula. To the antients it was known by the name of Calpe, and was also called one of the pillars of Hercules; by the Arabians it is called Gabel Tarek, that is "The mount of Tarek," from Tarek, the name of the Saracen general who conquered Spain in the beginning of the 8th century. The whole is an immense rock, rising perpendicularly about 440 yards, measuring from north to

south about 200 English, but not above one in breadth from east to west. The town lies along the bay on the west side of the mountain on a decline, by which, generally speaking, the rains pass through it and keep it clean. The old town was considerably larger than the new, which, at present, consists of between 400 and 500 houses. Many of the streets are narrow and irregular; the buildings are of different materials; some of natural stone out of the quarries, some of a factitious or artificial stone, and a few of brick. The people are supplied with fresh provisions, chiefly from the coast of Barbary, with fruit, roots, and vegetables of all sorts from thence, or from their own gardens. Besides what is properly called the town, there are several spacious and commodious public edifices erected; such as barracks for the soldiers, with apartments for their officers, magazines of different kinds, storehouses for provisions, &c. The inhabitants, exclusive of the British subjects dependent on the garrison, or who reside there for other motives, consist of some Spaniards, a few Portuguese, a considerable number of Genoese, and about as many Jews; making in the whole, according to Dr. Campbell, between 2 and 3000, without reckoning the garrison; though some make them much fewer. The town may be said to have two ports; the first lying to the north, and is proper only for small vessels; the other is very commodious for large vessels, and has a fine stone quay. The bay is very beautiful and capacious, being in breadth about five miles, and in length eight or nine, with several small rivers running into it. It is very advantageous to the place. There is no ground to be found in the middle of it at 100 fathoms depth, so that a squadron may lie there in great safety; the breezes from it are very refreshing; and it contributes likewise to the subsistence of the inhabitants, by supplying them with plenty of fish.

In the province of Estramadura, which lies on the frontiers of Portugal, there is found an abundance of corn, wine, and fruits, but the air is extremely hot. The chief towns are Badajoz, Merida, Truxillo, Caceres, and Alcantara.

Badajoz is a large and strong town, seated on the river Guadiana, over which is a fine bridge built by the Romans.

Merida is also a strong town, with several antient ruins.

Caceres is noted for fine wool.

Alcantara is a small, but strong city, built by the Moors.

PORTUGAL.

The feeble kingdom of Portugal is bounded on the north by Gallicia; on the east by Leon, Estramadura, and Andalusia; on the south by the straits of Gibraltar; and on the west by the Atlantic.

It is divided into six provinces, two of which are north of the Douro, Entre Minho, East Douro, and Tra les Montes, the former maritime, the latter inland; two between the Douro and the Tajo, Beira and Estramadura; and two south of the Tajo, Alentejo on the Atlantic, and Algarre along the strait of Gibraltar. The air of Portugal in the southern provinces would be extremely hot, if it were not refreshed by the sea breezes;

but in the northern it is much cooler, and more subject to rains. The spring is very delightful. The soil is fruitful in wine, oil, pomegranates, figs, raisins, almonds, chesnuts, oranges, lemons, and other fine fruits; but there is a want of corn, owing, it is said, chiefly to the neglect of agriculture. The horses are lively, but not strong: the mules being sure footed are more useful. Here is plenty of salt, fish, and honey. The mountains contain metallic ores of various species, but the mines are generally neglected, unless those of saltpetre. Here are few manufactories, but a considerable foreign trade in colonial produce.

Estramadura is the first province where oranges were planted when brought from China. Its chief towns are Lisbon, Santaren, Leiria, and Setuval.

Lisbon, the capital of the kingdom of Portugal, is situated in the province of Estramadura, on the banks of the river Tagris, in W. Long. 9° 25′ N. Lat. 38° 25′. It was anciently called Olisipo, Olisippo, and Ulisippo, which are supposed to be derived from the Phœnician Ulisubbo, or Ulisippo, signifying in that tongue, a pleasant bay, such as that on which this city stands. It first became considerable in the reign of king Emmanuel; from that king it hath been the capital of the kingdom, the residence of its monarchs, the seat of the chief tribunals, and the receptacle of the richest merchandise of the East and West Indies. Its air is excellent, being refreshed by the delightful sea breezes, and those of the Tagus or Tago. The city extends for about two miles along the Tagus; but its breadth is inconsiderable. Like old Rome, it stands on seven hills; but the streets in general are narrow and dirty, and some of them are very steep; neither are they lighted at night. The churches, in general, are very fine; but the magnificence of the chapel-royal is amazing. Here is one of the finest harbours in the world; and there were a great number, not only of the finest churches and convents here, but also of other public buildings, and particularly of royal palaces, and others belonging to the grandees; but the greatest part of them and of the city, were destroyed by a most dreadful earthquake, on Nov. 1, 1755, from which it will require a long time to recover. The inhabitants, before the earthquake, did not at most exceed 150,000. The government of it is lodged in a council, consisting of a president, six counsellors and other inferior offices. The harbour has water enough for the largest ship, and room enough for 10,000 sail without being crouded. For its security, there is a fort at the mouth of the river, on each side, and a bar that runs across it, and is very dangerous to pass without pilots. Higher up, at a place where the river is considerably contracted, there is a fort called Torre de Belem, or the tower of Belem, under whose guns all ships must pass in their way to the city; and on the other side are several more forts. Before the earthquake, most of the private houses were old and unsightly, with lattice windows; and the number of convents and colleges amounted to 50, viz. 32 for monks, and 18 for nuns. The king's principal palace stands on the river, and is large and commodious. Of the hospitals, that called the Great, is obliged to receive all persons of what degree, nation, or religion soever, without exception. At the village of Belem, near Lisbon, is a noble hospital, for decayed gentlemen who have served the king, and have not wherewithal to maintain themselves. That called the house of

mercy, is also a noble charity. In the centre of the city, upon one of the highest hills is the castle, which commands the whole, being large and antient, and having always a garrison of four regiments of foot. The cathedral is a vast edifice of the Gothic kind, but heavy and clumsy, it contains, however, great riches, and is finely adorned within. The square called Rosia is large, and surrounded with magnificent buildings. The whole city is under the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the patriarch, who was appointed in the year 1717. Here is also an archbishop, who has, or at least had, before the erection of the patriarchate, a revenue of 40,000 crusadoes, or 6,000*l.* The university, which was removed for some time to Coimbra, but afterwards restored to its antient seat, makes a considerable figure, though much inferior to that of Coimbra.

Santaren is a handsome town, seated in a neighbourhood, which is fertile in wheat.

Beira is an agreeable and fruitful province, in which are situated Coimbra, Viseu, Braganza, and Guarda.

Coimbra, chiefly celebrated for its university, is large and handsome, and has a very magnificent cathedral.

Guarda is a fortified town, and has a stately cathedral.

Tra los Montes has its name from its being separated by mountains from the other parts of the kingdom. Its capital, seated on a rock, and Braganza, a fortified town, are the chief places in this province.

Entre Douro Minho contains Porto and Braga; the former a rich town noted for its red wines, and the latter, though of less note, the capital of the province.

Alentejo has for its capital Evora, a considerable town, situated in a pleasant country.

Portalegre and Elvas are handsome towns; in the latter is a cistern, so large, that it will hold water enough for the inhabitants for six months. The water is brought by a magnificent aqueduct, three miles in length, which is in some places supported by four or five arches elevated one above another.

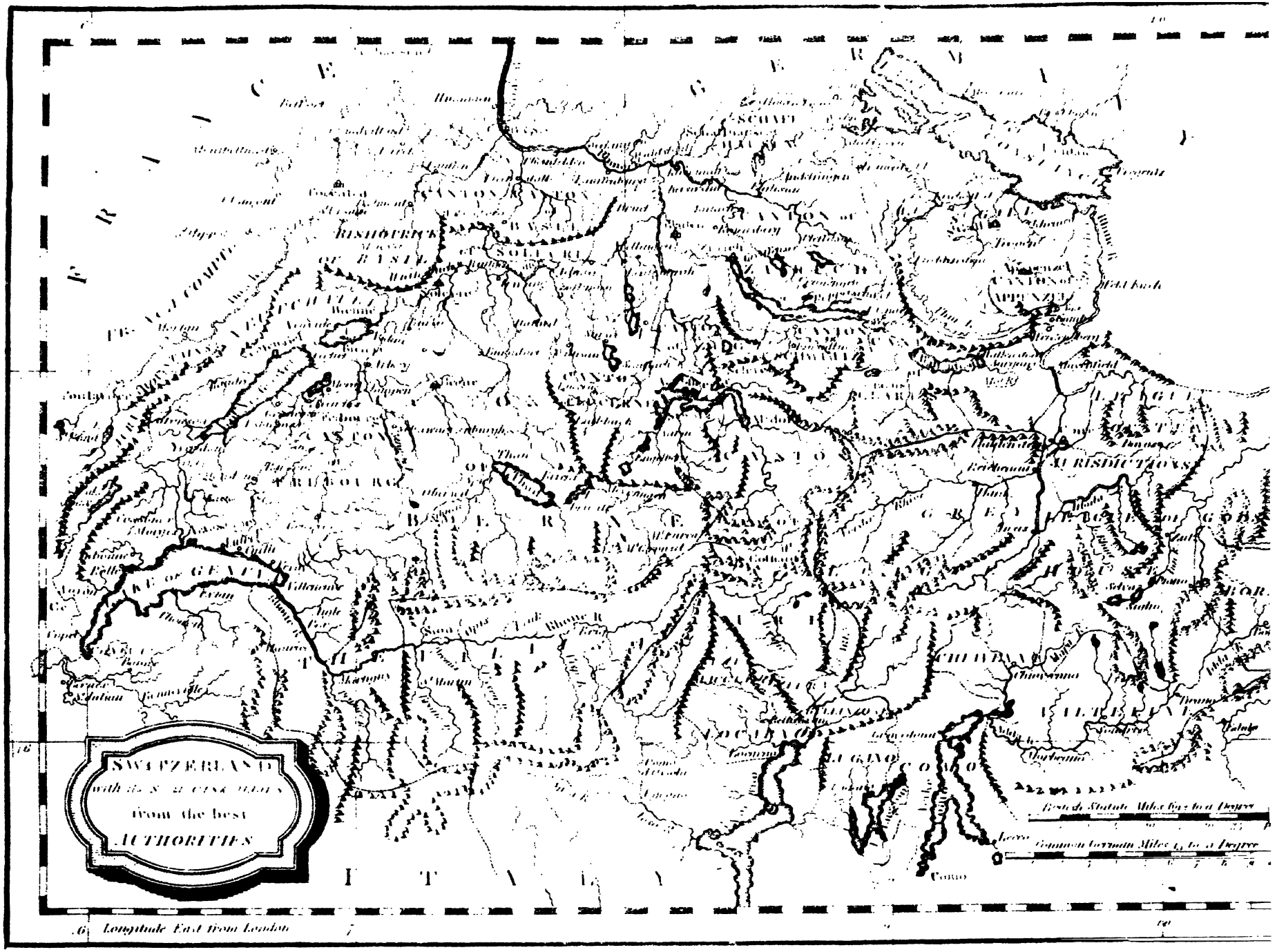
Estremos is divided into the upper and lower tower towns. The houses are white, and the principal of them adorned with marble pillars; here is also a tower of marble of a very fine polish. Earthen ware of a curious and beautiful kind is made here.

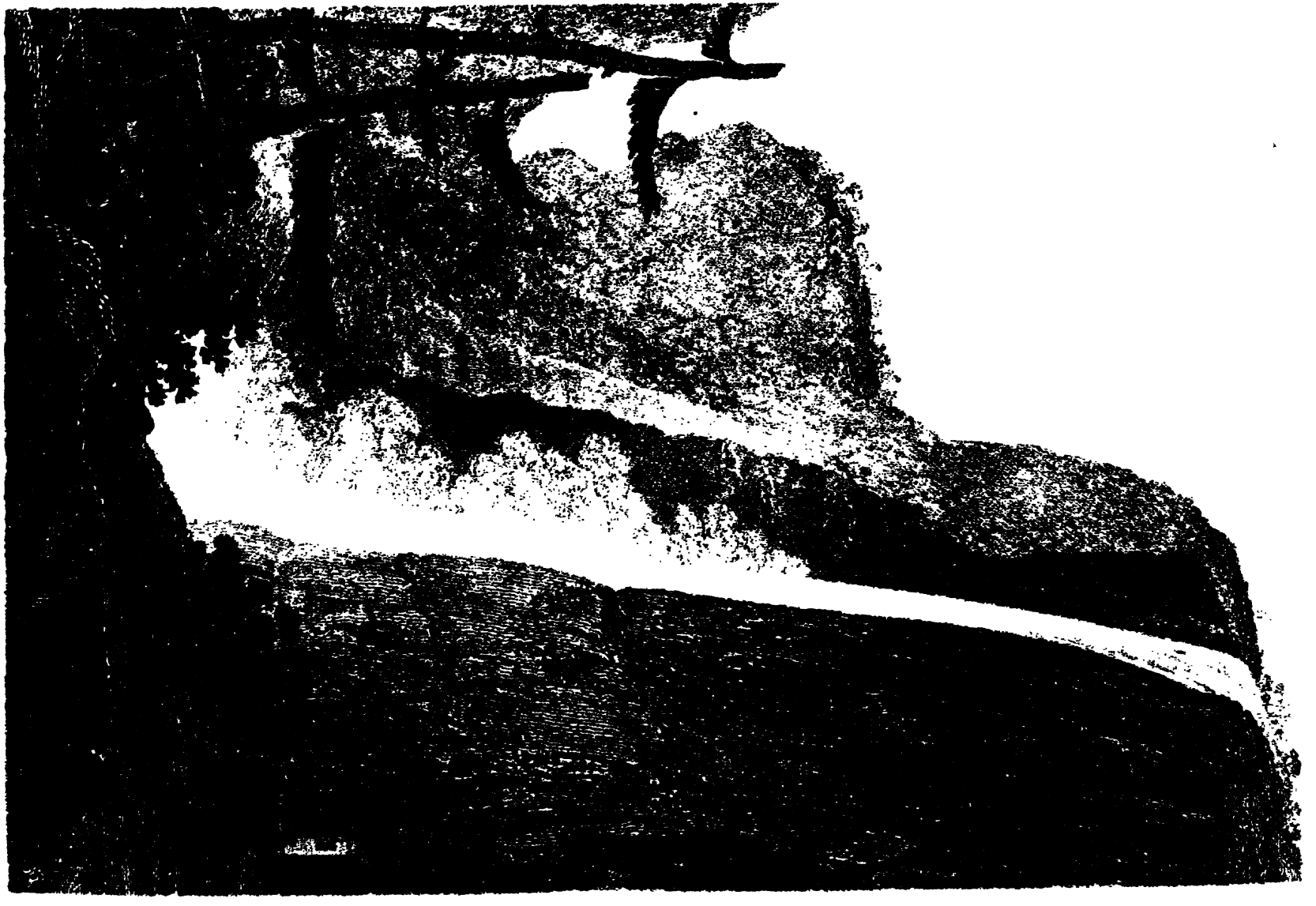
Algarve, which had formerly the title of a kingdom, is a very pleasant and fertile country. Tavira, its capital, has an excellent harbour.

Having noticed the various divisions of the large peninsula south-west of France, we have to cross the Alps and survey Switzerland and Italy.

SWITZERLAND.

Switzerland, or Swisserland, is bounded on the north by Swabia; on the east by Tirol; on the south by Savoy and the Milanese; and on the west by France; being about 260 miles long, and 100 broad. It is divided into 13 cantons, viz. Berne, Zurich,


SWITZERLAND
from the best
AUTHORITIES
Longitude East from London



Schaffhausen, Basil, Lucerne, Underwalden, Uri, Switz, Friburg, Zug, Soleure, Glaris, and Appenzel.

With respect to the government and constitution of these cantons, some of them are aristocracies and some democracies. In the former, both the legislative and executive power is lodged in the burghers or citizens of the capital of each canton; of these there are seven, viz. Zurich, Berne, Basil, Friburg, Soleure, and Schaffhausen; in the others, the legislative power is lodged in the whole body of the people, and every male above 16, whether master or servant, has a vote in making laws and in the choice of magistrates. For what con[illegible] the whole Helvetic body, there are diets ordinary and extraordinary, the former ar[illegible] annually, and the others upon particular emergencies; and both are summoned by the city of Zurich, which appoints the time and place of their meetings. Besides the general diet since the Reformation, they have particular diets of the two religions, at which all public affairs of consequence, that regard the two parties, are treated separately; for though a sense of their common interest obliges them to study to maintain the league and union, yet it is certain that the mutual confidence between the cantons is in some measute lost, through the zeal of each party for their particular opinions, especially the Roman Catholics. The annual general diets are held always at Frauenfeld or Baden, principally to regulate the affair of the common bailiages. Lucern takes the lead of the Roman Catholic cantons, being the most powerful of that denomination; but Zurich, though less powerful than that of Berne, takes the precedence of all the other cantons, both protestant and popish. These cantons do not make one commonwealth, but are so many independent states, united together by strict alliances for their mutual defence. The extraordinary diets or congresses are held at Aldorf. Each [illegible] usually [illegible] two envoys, both to the ordinary and extraordinary, to which [illegible] the town of St. Gall, and the town of Biel, send representatives as allies. [illegible] belong, in common, [illegible] bailiages, two towns, and two lordships. [illegible] incorporated places, as they are [illegible] the abbot and town of St. Gall, [illegible] the republic of the [illegible] of Muhlhausen and Bie[illegible] Nuenburg or Neufchatel, [illegible] the bishop of Basil. Of these [illegible] of St. Gall, and [illegible] are regarded as Members of [illegible] only as allies. [illegible] and produce of Switzerland [illegible] of Berne to [illegible] Geneva, together with [illegible] Uri, [illegible] part of the canton of Lucern [illegible] be from 9000 to 12,000 feet above [illegible] rocks, of which some are [illegible] Among the mountains are [illegible] baths, waterfalls, craggy precipices, deep narrow valleys, and caverns. They yield also a great variety of herbs, thickets, and bushes, in the upper parts; and in the lower, rich pastures and woods. The highest are those in the canton of Uri. Many of the valleys are covered with lakes, or watered by brooks and rivers. In some of them are towns, vil-

lages, woods, vineyards, and corn lands. Both on the mountains and in the valleys the air is extremely cold in winter; but in summer it is very pleasant, cool, and refreshing on the former, but excessively hot in the latter. Sometimes it is winter on the north side of a mountain, when it is summer on the other; nay, flowers may be gathered sometimes with one hand, and snow with the other. Prodigious masses of ice and snow often fall from them in winter, and do a great deal of damage; and most of the streams and rivers take their rise from the thawing of the ice and snow on their sides and tops. From the rising or descending of the clouds, with which they are commonly enveloped, the inhabitants can, for the most part, pretty exactly foretel the change of the weather; so that they serve them instead of weather-glasses. The other and [illegible] parts of Switzerland are very pleasant and fertile, being diversified with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture-grounds. The mountains in these are but mole-hills in comparison of the others; there is neither snow nor ice on them in summer; and they frequently afford not only good pasturage, but arable ground. Many petrifactions are found both among these and the others, with a variety of fossils. The sands of the rivers yield gold dust, particularly those of the Rhine, the Emmet, and the Aar, the Russ, the Arve, and the Inn. The metals of this country being generally found to be brittle, the only mines that are worked are a few iron ones. In the lower parts of Switzerland they sow rye, oats, barley, spelt, flax, and hemp. Wines of various sorts are also produced in some of them, with a variety of fruits. Of wood for fuel and other uses, there is generally plenty; in some places, however, they are obliged to burn sheep's dung; and in others a kind of heath and small shrubs. In the valleys they cultivate saffron with success. The Switzers derive their principal subsistence from their flocks and herds of cattle, which in summer graze upon the mountains. Their cheese is much esteemed, especially that of Berne and Griers in the canton of Friburg. Great numbers of horses are also bred here, and bought up for the French cavalry. Besides the above-mentioned rivers, the Rhone and the Tesin have their sources in this country. The lakes are very numerous; but the chief of these are Geneva, Neufchatel, Biel, Zurich, Thun, Brien, Constance, and Lucern. Both rivers and lakes abound with fish, and afford a cheap water carriage. Switzerland is not so populous as many other countries in Europe; and the popish cantons less so than the protestant. The total number of the inhabitants is computed at 2,000,000.

The language generally spoken here is the German, in which also, all public affairs are transacted; but in those parts of the country bordering on Italy or France a corrupt French or Italian prevails. The two predominant religions are Calvinism and popery. Of the former are the cantons of Zurich and Berne, the town of St. Gall, Geneva, Mulhausen, and Biel, the principality of Neufchatel, the greater part of Basil, Schaffhausen, the country of the Grisons, the Thurgau, Toggenburg, Glaris, and the Rhine valley; the frontiers of Appenzel, with a small part of Solothurn, and some places in the countries of Baden, and Sargans. The rest of the Swiss cantons' allies and dependents, are popish. For the education of youth there is an university at Basil, and

academies at Zurich, Berne, Lausanne, and Geneva, besides gymnasiums and scholæ illustres, both in the popish and protestant cantons. There are also societies among them for the improvement of the German language and the sciences.

The principal manufactures are snuff and tobacco, linen of several sorts, lace, thread, silk, and worsted stockings, neckcloths, cotton stuffs, gloves, handkerchiefs, silks of several sorts, gold and silver brocades, a variety of woollen manufactures, hats, paper, leather of all sorts, earthen wares, porcelain, toys, watches, clocks, and other hardwares, &c. The trade of Switzerland is greatly promoted by many navigable lakes and rivers. In some of the above manufactures, and in cheese, butter, sheep, horses, black cattle, hides, and skins, the exports are considerable; and as the imports are chiefly grain, and salt, with some American and Asiatic goods, there is probably a large balance in their favour. In some parts of Switzerland dress is restrained by sumptuary laws.

The public revenues are in general very inconsiderable, arising chiefly from the usual regalia, appropriated every where to the sovereign, the demesnes, and public granaries, voluntary contributions, the sale of salt, and a land tax; in the protestant cantons, from the church-lands also, that were seized at the reformation. Except in Zurich, Berne, Basil, and Schaffhausen, where the people are more industrious, have a greater trade, and are richer than in the others, they defray the ordinary charges, and that is all.

The cantons never keep any standing troops, except for a few garrisons; but their militia is reckoned to be the best regulated of any in Europe. Every male from 16 to 60 is enrolled, and about one third of them regimented. They must all provide themselves with arms, clothing, and accoutrements, and appear on the stated days for exercise; and the several cantons and districts must be furnished with a sufficient train of artillery, and all the other implements of war. The Switzers of the several cantons are allowed to engage in the service of such foreign princes and states as are in alliance with those cantons, or with whom they have made a previous agreement. Such states, paying an annual subsidy to the respective cantons, are allowed to make levies. Every man enlists voluntarily, and for what number of years he pleases, at the expiration of which he is at liberty to return home. A great many thus always returning from foreign service, Switzerland is never unprovided with able and experienced officers and soldiers. With respect to their character they are a brave, honest, hospitable, hardy people; very true to their engagements, friendly and humane. In short, there is not a people in Europe whose national character is better. In their persons they are generally tall, robust, and well made; but their complexions are none of the best; and those that live in the neighbourhood of the mountains are subject to wens. The women are said to be generally handsome and well shaped, sensible and modest, yet frank, easy, and agreeable in conversation. Few of the peasants are miserably poor; many of them are rich, especially in the protestant cantons, and that part of Berne in particular.

Berne is the most fruitful, the richest, and by much the largest of all the cantons, extending in length about sixty leagues, and about thirty where broadest. It yields not only plenty of grain, fruit, and pasture; but also good wine, a variety of coloured earths, and clays, sand stone, mundic, gypsum, pit-coal, sulphur, and iron ore. Here like-

wise are large herds of cattle, great and small; and, in consequence, great quantities of milk, butter, and cheese. The principal lake is that of Geneva: the length of which is about 18 leagues, and the greatest breadth between three and four. The depth in some places is near 430 fathoms, in others not above 40. The Rhone enters it at the east and near Bouveret, and issues out again at the west close by Geneva. In summer its waters are much swelled by the melting of the snow on the mountains. This lake, however, is not entirely surrounded by the territory of Berne, but partly by Savoy, and the country of Gex; the former of which belongs to the king of Sardinia, and the latter to France and the territory of Sion. Its borders are extremely fertile and beautiful, being much embellished with vineyards, which yield excellent wine; and interspersed with towns and villages, betwixt which a considerable commerce is carried on. The other great lakes that are wholly, or partly within this canton, are Neufchatel, Biel, Murte, Thun, Brien, and Halwyl; which all abound in fish, particularly that of Geneva, where trouts are sometimes caught weighing 40 or 50 pounds. In that of Biel, called also the Nydau-lake, are two small islands, one of which is very beautiful. This lake is about three leagues in length, and one in breadth. Along the whole west and north-west sides of the canton runs the chain of mountains, called by the general name of Jura; but the several mountains, of which it is composed, have all their particular names. This canton is well cultivated and very populous, the number of its subjects being computed at 400,000. German is the prevailing language, but almost all the people of fashion speak either French or Italian; even the common people in the Pais de Vaud, and other places that lie towards France or Italy, speak a corrupt French or Italian, or a jargon composed of both. The ministers of religion are divided into deaneries and classes, and hold yearly chapters or synods. They are kept in a greater dependance on the civil power here, than in the other cantons, and not suffered to interfere with matters of state.

The city of Berne first joined the confederacy in the year 1353. Towards the defence thereof the canton now furnishes 2000 men. Every male from 16 to 60, is enrolled in the militia, and about a third of them regimented. There are officers for every district, whose province it is to see that the men be regularly exercised; that their arms, ammunition, and clothing be in good condition; and that they be kept in constant readiness to march. Once a-year they are drawn out to a general review. The same attention is paid to those that belong to the train of artillery. Some regiments consist of married, and some of unmarried men; some of foot, others of dragoons. There is also one regiment and a troop of cuiriassiers. The latter consists entirely of burghers of Berne. Both the horsemen and footmen find their horses, arms, and accoutrements. Besides the arms and artillery in the arsenal at Berne, all the castles, where the country governors or bailiffs reside, are well furnished with them. At Berne is a constant guard or garrison of 200 men, and a small garrison at Fort Arburg. In the same city is also an office, which grants licences for levies to foreign powers, and where the recruits make their appearance, and are registered. The bailiffs have the chief direction of affairs in their several districts, being generals of the militia, and presiding in the courts of justice

but in civil causes, above a certain value, an appeal lies from them to Berne; and in capital cases their sentence must be confirmed by the great council, before it can be executed. When any bailiwick is to be disposed of, as many balls as there are competitors are put into a bag, whereof one is gilt, and he that draws that has the bailiwic.

The principal towns in this canton are Berne and Lausanne.

The city of Berne is said to have derived its name from the taking of a bear the same day on which its foundation was laid. The houses are generally built with white freestone, and, in the principal streets, have piazzas or arches under them, for the convenience of walking dry in wet weather. Most of the streets are paved with flints, and traversed by a canal lined with freestone, which canal is brought from a considerable distance, and is useful for cleansing the city and extinguishing fires. This city is longer than Zurich, but not so populous nor well built. In the upper part of this city are always kept a number of bears between two enclosures, with fir-trees for them to climb and play upon.

Lausanne is a large, handsome, and antient town, capital of the Pays de Vaud. It was obtained by conquest from the duke of Savoy, is governed by its own magistrates, and has its peculiar privileges. Here is no pardon for capital offences.

The canton of Zurich is about 60 miles from north to south, and 48 from east to west. With respect to its face, air, and soil, it is said to be an epitome of all Switzerland, as containing in it hills, valleys, plains, corn-lands, vineyards, lakes, and rivers. Their wines have tartness at first, but the longer they are kept the more agreeable they are. The other products are excellent fruits, corn, pasture, fine clay, chalk, several coloured earths, pit-coal, turf, and sulphur. There are also some mineral springs in the canton; and of the lakes that of Zurich is the most considerable. The reformation was introduced here by Zuinglius, in the year 1517. This canton is the first in rank, and inferior only to that of Berne in extent, power, and wealth; in consequence of which, its representatives preside in the general diets, when held in any place belonging in common to the cantons; and the affairs relating to the whole confederacy are transacted in its offices. Its quota for the defence of the several members of the confederacy, is 1400 men. Of one of the two armies raised on these occasions, it nominates one of the commanders in chief, as Lucern does the other. Its revenue is said to be about 150,000 crowns a-year; of which one year with another, two thirds are expended in the charges of government, and the rest laid up in the treasury. It can bring 50,000 fighting men into the field at a very short warning.

Zurich, the capital, stands in a pleasant country, near where the river Aa issues from the lake, that takes its name from the town, 23 miles from Schaffhausen, and 114 from Geneva. After having being ruined by Attila the Hun, it is said to have been restored by Thuricus son of Theodoric king of the Goths, from whom it took the name of Thuricum, corrupted afterwards into that of Zurich. It is fortified in the modern way, and has wide ditches, faced with freestone. There are five arsenals in it, well stored with arms and artillery; an academy or college having 15 professors; a museum or chamber of rarities; a stately town-house, the pillars in the front of which are black marble

streaked with white ; and a town library. The sovereignty and administration of all affairs are lodged in the greater and lesser council, out of which are chosen the city officers, as the councils are out of the 13 companies of burghers. There are several other councils or colleges, each of which has its particular department. Here are a great variety of silk, woollen, linen, cotton, and other manufactures ; this being the place of the greatest trade in all Switzerland. The town is well supplied with provisions by and from its lake. The streets are neat and houses well built, but not magnificent. In the town library are several letters to Bullinger, from lady Jane Gray, daughter of the duke of Suffolk. In one of the arsenals is the figure of William Tell, dressed and armed in the antient Swiss manner, with the cross-bow whence he shot the arrow that struck the apple off his child's head.

Both men and women are so fond of music that there are few of them that cannot play on some instrument. If a burgher goes out of town, or a peasant enters it without a sword, they are liable to be fined. No persons, whatever their rank or office may be, are exempted from the sumptuary laws. The burgomasters, who are the same as the advoyers at Berne, have the title of excellence. The hospitals here are very neat and well endowed ; but they do not affect the ridiculous vanity of lodging the poor in palaces. Not only in this town and canton and other parts of Switzerland, but also among the Grisons, the ministers all preach covered. The country about the town is very pleasant and fruitful ; for both which is not a little indebted to the lake that extends 24 miles in length, and two or three in breadth. The water is of a green colour, supposed to be owing to the melted snow that falls into it from the adjacent mountains. That part of it next Zurich is called the Lower Lake, and the other end the Upper. The cathedral or great church is collegiate. The present city is said to owe its origin to a nunnery, founded by the emperor Lewis I. near where the antient Tigurum stood.

The town of Schaffhausen is large, handsome, and strong. It is celebrated for a magnificent cathedral, and a clock which shews the courses and eclipses of the sun and moon.

Basil, the capital of the canton of that name, is said to be the largest city in Switzerland. It is fortified with walls, moats, towers, and bastions. The police is excellent, and the dress of the inhabitants is regulated by sumptuary laws. In the town house is an exquisite piece of the sufferings of Christ, and a statue of Munatius Plancus, a Roman, who, about fifty years before Christ, founded the city of Augusta Rauracorum, on whose ruins Basil is said to have been erected. Holbein's Dance of Death is painted on a wall opposite the French church, and represents the king of terrors as mingling with persons of all ages, and complimenting them on their arrival at the grave. The clocks at Basil are reported to go an hour faster than in other places, in order to preserve the memory of a conspiracy, defeated by means of thus anticipating the time.

Lucern is the capital of the catholic cantons, and has a nuncio resident in it. It is a small town, with little commerce, situated in a romantic country.

Friburg is erected in a singularly picturesque situation. It stands partly in a small plain, partly on bald acclivities on a ridge of rugged rocks, half encircled by the river

ITALY,
from the best
AUTHORITIES.
SWITZERLAND
FRANCE
SAVOY
PIEDMONT
VENICE
PARMA
MODENA
TUSCANY
STATES OF THE CHURCH
KING OF NAPLES
ADRIATIC SEA OR GULF OF VENICE
TURKEY IN EUROPE
CORSICA
SARDINIA
ISLES OF LIPARI
SICILY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
Lyons
Grenoble
Nice
Toulon
Genoa
Chambery
Turin
Trent
Mantua
Padua
Venice
Trieste
Parma
Modena
Bologna
Lucca
Florence
Leghorn
Ancona
Fermo
Chioti
Perugia
Rome
Elba I.
Bastia
C. Corso
Bonifacio
C. Comin
Cagliari
Gulf of Manfredonia
Lucera
Foggia
Trani
Naples
Salerno
Gulf of Taranto
Taranto
C. S. Leuca
Durazzo
Corfu I.
G. di Palmiro
Cozonza
Catanzara
Palermo
Messina
C. Spartivento
Stora Bay
Tunis
Cape Ron
Canal of Malta
Malta

Sane, and is so entirely concealed by the circumjacent hills, that the traveller scarcely catches the smallest glimpse, until he bursts upon a view of the whole town, from the over-hanging eminence. The fortifications, which consist of high stone walls and towers, inclose a circumference of about four miles; within which space the eye comprehends a singular mixture of houses, rocks, thickets, and meadows, varying instantly from wild to agreeable, from the bustle of a town to the solitude of the deepest retirement. It is the residence of a catholic bishop.

Soleure is a neat little town, containing about 4000 inhabitants. The greatest object of curiosity is the new church of St. Urs, begun in 1762 and finished in 1773. It cost at least 80,000*l.* a considerable sum for such a small republic, whose annual revenue scarcely exceeds 12,000*l.* a-year

In the town of Glaris are two churches, in which the Calvinists and catholics celebrate divine service in turns.

Apenzel has manufactures of linen, crape, fustian, and thread, and carries on a considerable trade in cattle, wood, and coal.

The Grisons inhabit a mountainous country, but find good pasture for cattle, and grow grain, pulse, fruits, and wine in the valleys. Each of the three leagues is subdivided into several communities, which are perfect democracies; every male above 16 having a share in the government of the community, and a vote at the election of magistrates. Deputies from the several communities constitute the general diet of the Grison leagues, which meets annually and alternately at the capital of each league. The deputies can however do nothing of themselves but write back for the consent of their constituents. Here is much of the spirit of toleration between the communities of the catholic and reformed religions, but the judges are said to be venal, and to administer justice with much partiality.

Geneva, the most celebrated city in Switzerland, remains to be described. It is a handsome, well fortified city, which contains about 30,000 inhabitants. The Rhone, which here issues from the lake of Geneva, supplies the inhabitants with water, by means of an aqueduct, which elevates it 100 feet above its level. The citizens are usually well informed, many of the tradesmen having been educated at the public academy.

ITALY.

Italy is bounded on the north by France, Switzerland, and Germany; on the east by the Adriatic; on the south and west by the Mediterranean. Its principal divisions, previous to the revolution in France, were Savoy, Piedmont, Genoa, the Milanese, Parma, Modena, Mantua, the republic of Venice, Tuscany, Lucca, the territories of the Pope, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica.

Savoy lies between France and Italy, and takes its name from the latin Sabaudia, altered afterwards to Saboia and Sabojia.

As it lies among the Alps, it is full of lofty mountains, which in general are very barren; many of the highest of them are perpetually covered with ice and snow. The

summit of those called Montagnes Maudites, "the cursed mountains," are said to be more than two English miles in perpendicular height above the level of the lake of Geneva, and the level itself is much higher than the Mediterranean. In some few of the valleys there is corn land, and pasture, and a good breed of cattle and mules; and along the lake of Geneva, and in two or three other places, a tolerable wine is produced. Mount Senis or Cenis, between Savoy and Piedmont, over which the highway from Geneva to Turin lies, is as high if not higher than the Montagnes Maudites; but of all the mountains of the Alps, the highest is Mount Rochmelon, in Piedmont, between Fertiere and Novalese. The roads over these mountains are very tedious, disagreeable and dangerous, especially as huge masses of snow, called by the Italians avalanches, and fragments of rocks frequently roll down into them from the impending precipices. The way of travelling is either in sledges, chairs, or on the backs of mules: in some places the path, on the brink of precipices, is so narrow that there is but just room for a single person to pass. It begins to snow on these mountains about the beginning of October. In summer, in the months of July, August, and September, many of them yield very fine grass with a great variety of flowers and herbs; and others box-wood, walnuts, chesnuts, and pines. The height and different combinations of these mountains, their towering summits rising one above another, and covered with snow, the many cataracts or falls of water, the noise and rapidity of the river Are, the froth and green tincture of its water, the echoes of its numerous streams, tumbling from cliff to cliff, form altogether a very romantic scene. These mountainous tracts, notwithstanding their height, are not altogether free from thunder in summer, and are also exposed to thick clouds, which sometimes settle unexpectedly on them, and continue several days. There are some wolves among the thickets; and they abound with hares, rupicapras or chamois, and marmottes. In the lower parts of Savoy, there are also bears, wild boars, deer, and rabbits; and among the desolate mountains are found great quantities of rock-crystal. In the glacieres or ice-valleys, between the high mountains, the air is extremely cold even in the months of July and August. The surface of these ice-valleys looks like a sea or lake, which after having being agitated by fierce and contrary winds, has been frozen all at once, interspersed with hideous cracks and chasms. The noise of these cracks, when first made by the heat of the noon-day sun, and reverberated by the surrounding rocks and mountains, is astonishing. The height of the impending mountains is such, that the sun's rays seldom reach the ice-valleys, except a few hours in the middle of the summer. The Avalanches, or snow-balls, which the least concussion of the air will occasion, tumble down the mountains with amazing rapidity, continually increasing and carrying all before them. People have been taken out alive, after being buried several days under them. The mountainous nature of this duchy renders the plough a useless instrument of agriculture. The peasants break up the hungry soil with the pick-axe and spade, and to improve it carry up mould and dung in baskets. For the purpose of preserving it from drought in the spring and summer, they cut small reservoirs above it, the water of which may be let out at will; and to prevent the earth from giving way, break the declivity of the mountains by building walls on the side for

its support which frequently assume the appearance of antient fortification, and are a pleasing deception to travellers. The Savoyards carry their better sort of cheese into Piedmont, as the flavour is much esteemed there; but they gain more by their skins of bears, chamois, and bouquetings, (a species of the wild goat), or by the sale of growse and pheasants, which they carry in great numbers to Turin.

The chief rivers are the Rhone, which, on the side of Geneva, separates Savoy from France; the Arve, which has some particles of gold in its sands; the Isere, the Seran, the Siers, and the Are. There are also a great many lakes in this country, which yield plenty of fish, but none of them are very large; together with medicinal and reciprocating springs and hot baths.

The language of the common people is a corrupt French; but the better sort and those that live in the great cities, speak as good French as they do in Paris itself.

In their temper, however, and disposition, the Savoyards resemble the Germans more than the French, retaining still much of the old German honesty and simplicity of manners, which, no doubt, is partly owing to the poverty and barrenness of the country. To this also, joined to their longevity and the fruitfulness of their women, which are the effects of cheerful disposition, healthy air, activity, temperance, and sobriety, it is owing that great numbers of them are obliged to go abroad in quest of a livelihood, which they earn, those at least who have no trades, by showing marmottes, cleaning shoes, sweeping chimneys, and the like. It is said that there are generally about 18,000 of them, young and old, about Paris. In the summer they lie in the streets, and in winter forty, fifty, or sixty of them lodge together in a room: they are so honest that they may be trusted to any amount. The children are often carried abroad in baskets, before they are able to walk. In many villages of Savoy there is hardly a man to be seen throughout the year, excepting a month or two. Those that have families generally set out and return about the same season, when their wives commonly lie in, and they never fail to bring home some part of their small earnings. Some of them are such consummate masters of œconomy, that they set up shops and make fortunes, and others return home with a competency for the rest of their days. An old man is often dispatched with letters, little presents, and some money, from the younger sort, to their parents and relations, and brings back with him fresh colonies, letters, messages, and news. The cultivation of their grounds, and the reaping and gathering of the harvest and vintage, are generally left to the women and children; but all this is to be understood of the mountainous parts of Savoy. Great numbers of the mountaineers of both sexes are said to be lame and deformed, and they are much subject to a kind of wens, which grow about their throats, and very much disfigure them, especially the women: but that is the only inconvenience they feel from them.

No other religion was professed or tolerated in Savoy, but that of the church of Rome. The decrees, however, of the council of Trent were not admitted; nor were the churches asylums for malefactors.

This duchy is divided into those of Chablais, Geneveis, and Savoy proper, the counties of Tarataise and Maurienne, and the barony of Fancigny.

Chamberry, the capital of Savoy, is a considerable town, well built, but not fortified. It is watered by several streams; which have their sources in St. Martin's hill, and run through the streets. In the centre of the town is the palace, formerly occupied by the king of Sardinia.

Piedmont, which was also subject to the king of Sardinia, is bounded by Switzerland on the north; Milan and Parma on the east; Genoa on the south; and France and Savoy on the west. It is a mountainous but fertile country, as the mountains produce wine, and the valleys corn. Large chesnuts are here very plentiful, and so many truffles are dug up that it is called the truffle country. The inhabitants amount to about 2,500,000, and carry on a considerable trade in silk and hemp.

Turin, an antient, populous, strong, handsome, flourishing city of Italy, and capital of Piedmont, where the sovereign resides, with an archbishop's see, a strong citadel, and an university. It is seated on a vast plain, at the confluence of the rivers Doria and Po. It is one of the handsomest places in Italy; but the air is unhealthy in the autumn and winter, on account of the thick fogs. One half of this place is lately built; and the streets are straight and clean, being washed by an aqueduct. The two largest streets are the New-street and that of the Po, which are lighted in the winter time. The houses are handsome, and all built of the same height. The ducal palace consists of two magnificent structures, joined together by a gallery, in which are several statues, all sorts of arms, the genealogy of the dukes of Savoy, a representation of the celestial signs, a royal library, and many other curiosities. Besides these two structures, there is the palace of the prince Carignan, the hospital of St. John, wherein they pretend to keep the cloth in which is the print of the face of Jesus Christ. These are all superb structures. When the plague reigned at Marseilles in 1720, a great number of artificers withdrew to Turin, insomuch that there are now above 87,000 inhabitants and 48 churches and convents. Turin is very well fortified, and extremely strong, as the French found by experience in 1706, who besieged it a long while to no purpose. The citadel, which is flanked with five bastions, is without doubt a master-piece of architecture. There are very fine walks on the ramparts, which require two hours to pass them. There are also very fine gardens on the side of the river Po; and the house commonly called La Charite is remarkable, as there is room for 3000 poor people. The college of the academy is very large and well built, and has a great number of antient inscriptions. In the royal library are 19,000 manuscripts, besides 30,000 printed books. It is charmingly seated at the foot of a mountain, 62 miles north-east of Genoa, 72 south-west of Milan, and 680 north-west of Rome.

The duchy of Montferrat was also a subject to the king of Sardinia. It contains 200 towns, and abounds in corn, wine, oil, and silk.

The Genoese territories extend along that part of the Mediterranean sea, commonly called the gulph of Genoa, about 152 miles; but their breadth is very unequal, being from eight to about 20 miles. Where they are not bounded by the sea, the following states and countries, taking them from west to east, are their boundaries, viz. Piedmont, Montferrat, Milan, Placentia, Parma, the dukedom of Tuscany, and the republic of

Lucca. This tract, though a great part of it is mountainous, and some of that barren enough, yet produces plenty of excellent fruit, good pasture, wood, garden stuff, and mulberry-trees, with some wine and oil, but little corn. What they want of the last, they have either from Lombardy, Sicily, or Naples.

Genoa stands on the coast of the Mediterranean sea, at the bottom of a little gulph, partly on the flat, and partly on the declivity of a pleasant hill; in consequence of which it appears to great advantage from the sea. It is defended on the land side by a double wall, which, in circumference, is about 10 Italian miles. Two of the streets consist entirely of a double straight row of magnificent palaces. The others, though clean and paved well, are crooked and narrow. The palaces of the nobility are almost all of marble, and many of them are painted on the outside. That there should be such a profusion of marble here, is not to be wondered at, as the neighbouring hills abound with it. The city contains a vast number of palaces churches, and convents, and several hospitals. The palace where the doge resides, and where the great and little council and the two colleges of the procuratori and governatori assemble, is a large stone building, in the centre of the city; but it contains some fine paintings in fresco; two statues of Andrew and John Doria, in white marble; and an arsenal, in which are said to be arms for 34,000 men, with a shield, containing 120 pistol-barrels, and 33 coats of mail, which it is pretended, were worn by as many Genoese heroines, in a croisade. Of the churches the finest are those of the Annunciation, St. Mary Carignan, St. Dominic, and St. Martha. In the cathedral is a dish made of a single emerald. All the inhabitants here, except the principal ladies who are carried in chairs, walk on foot, on account of the narrowness or steepness of the streets. The fortifications of the city towards the sea, are remarkably strong. There are two fine stone-bridges over the rivers Bonzevera and Bisagno, the first whereof washes the west, and the other the east side of the city, within which there is also a surprising stone bridge, joining two hills. The harbour, though large, is far from being safe; but no care or expence has been spared to render it as safe and commodious as possible. The wind to which it is most exposed, is that called Labeccio, or the south-west. The place where the republic's galleys lie, is called the Darsena, where are a great number of Turkish slaves. On a rock, on the west side of the harbour, is a fanal, or light house, a high tower, on the top of which is a lanthorn, containing 100 lamps. The trade of Genoa is chiefly in velvets, damask, plush, and other silks, brocades, lace, gloves, sweetmeats, fruit, oil, Parmesan cheese, anchovies, and medicinal drugs, from the Levant; but the badness of the harbour, and the high price of commodities, greatly check its commerce. In 1751, Genoa was declared a free port for ten years, under certain restrictions: in that called Porto Franco any merchant may have a warehouse, and import or export goods duty-free; but such as are disposed of in the city, or on the continent, are taxed pretty high. The nobility are allowed to trade in the wholesale way; to carry on velvet, silk, and cloth manufactories; and to have shares in merchant-ships; and some of them, as the Palavacini, are actually the greatest merchants in Genoa. Another very profitable article of trade carried on by them is banking, and dealing in bills of exchange. A new academy of painting, sculpture, civil and military

architecture, was instituted here in 1751. One may walk the streets of Genoa in the night with the greatest safety, which is more than can be said of many cities in Italy. Excessive splendour and luxury are, in several respects, restrained by salutary laws. No beggars are permitted to ask alms in Genoa, and the inns are better than those at Turin. When a single person is buried, a kind of garland of all sorts of artificial flowers is placed on the coffin. The Genoese in general are esteemed crafty, industrious, and inured to labour above the other Italians.

Milan, the capital of the duchy of that name, in latin Mediolanum, is a very large city, and has a wall and rampart round it, with a citadel; yet it is thought to be incapable of making any great resistance. The gardens within the city take up a great deal of ground. In the citadel is a foundry for cannon, and an arsenal furnished with arms for 12,000 men. The governor of it was quite independent of the governor-general of the Milanese, who resides in the city in a large, but old, and ill-contrived palace. The yearly income of the governor of Milan is said to have been 200,000 guilders. The council belonging to the city was composed of a president and 60 doctors of law, who were all nobles and independent of the governor-general. Milan hath experienced a great variety of fortune, having been subject sometimes to the French, sometimes to the Spaniards, and sometimes to the Germans. A great number of persons of rank and fortune live in it, especially during the winter. The ladies of France are not allowed more liberty than those of this city: even the austerities of a monastic life are so far mitigated, that gentlemen have not only the liberty of talking with the nuns, and rallying and laughing at the grates, but also of joining with them in concerts of music, and spending whole afternoons in their company. The cathedral is a vast pile, all of marble; and though something has been doing for near 400 years, towards the outward or inward ornament thereof, it is not yet finished. Of the great number of statues about it, that of St. Bartholomew, just flead alive, with his skin hanging over his shoulders; and of Adam and Eve, over the main portal, are the finest. The pillars, supporting the roof of the church, are all of marble, and the windows finely painted. This church contains a treasure of great value, particularly a shrine of rock-crystal, in which the body of St. Charles Boromaeo is deposited. The other churches, most worthy a stranger's notice, are those of St. Alexander, St. Jerome, St. Giovanni di Casarotti della Passione, that of the Jesuits, and of St. Ambrose, in which lie the bodies of the saint, and of the kings Pepin and Bernard. In the Ambrosian college, founded by Frederic Boromaeo, 16 professors teach gratis. In the same college is also an academy of painting, with a museum, and a library containing a vast number of printed books and manuscripts; among the last of which is a translation of Josephus's history of the Jews, done by Rufinus, about 1200 years ago, and written on the bark of a tree; St. Ambrose's works on vellum, finely illuminated; the orations of Gregory Nazianzen, and the works of Virgil, in folio, with Petrarch's notes. In the museum are Leonardi da Vinci's mathematical and mechanical drawings, in 12 large volumes. The seminary for sciences, the college of the nobles, the Helvetian college, and the mathematical academy, are noble foundations and stately buildings. Of the hospitals the most remarkable are the Lazaretto, and that called the great hospital;

the latter of which receives sick persons, foundlings, and lunatics, and has six smaller hospitals depending on it, with a revenue of 100,000 rix-dollars.

The number of the inhabitants of this city is said to be about 200,000. It has been 10 times besieged, taken 20 times, and 4 times almost entirely demolished; yet it hath always recovered itself. It is said gunpowder is sold here only by one person and in one place. The court of inquisition is held in the Dominican convent, near the church of Madonna della Gratia. The houses of entertainment and the ordinaries here, are represented as very indifferent. Milan is described as inferior to Turin, both in beauty and conveniency; many of the streets being crooked and narrow, and paper windows much more frequent than in that city; even in grand palaces, the windows are often composed promiscuously of glass and paper. Two large canals extend from hence, the one to the Tessino, and the other to the Adda; the Tessino having a communication with the Lago Maggiore, and by a canal with the Sesia; and then issuing from the Lago di Como, and having a communication by canals with the Lambro and Serio. In a void space of one of the streets of Milan, where stood the house of a barber, who had conspired with the commissary of health to poison his fellow citizens, is erected a pillar called Colonna Infame, with an inscription to perpetuate the memory of the execrable design. The environs of this city are very pleasant, being adorned with beautiful seats, gardens, orchards, &c. About two Italian miles from it, at the seat of the Simonetti family, is a building, that would have been a master piece of its kind, had the architect designed it for an artificial echo. It will return or repeat the report of a pistol above 60 times; and any single musical instrument, well touched, will have the same effect as a great number of instruments, and produce a most surprising and delightful concert.

The duchy of Parma has a wholesome air and fertile soil. Its products are corn, wine, oil and hemp; the pastures feed great numbers of cattle, and the cheese is highly esteemed. Here are considerable mines of silver and copper, and plenty of truffles, a species of subterraneous fungus.

The city of Parma is antient, rich, and populous, with a citadel, a bishop's see, and an university. It has a magnificent cathedral, and the largest opera-house in Europe.

Placentia is seated near the Po, in a very fertile pleasant plain, watered by a great number of rivulets, and surrounded with hills, abounding with all sorts of fruits. It contains a great number of merchants. The streets are straight, and the principal street, called the Stradone, is 25 common paces broad, and 3000 feet long, in a direct line, with 600 stone posts for separating the foot from the carriage way. Here are several fine structures and two admirable brass statues.

The duchy of Modena is bounded on the south by Tuscany and the republic of Lucca; on the north by the duchy of Mantua; on the east by the Bolognese and the territories of the church; and on the west by the duchy of Parma; extending in length from south to north about 56 English miles, and in breadth between 24 and 36, and yielding plenty of corn, wine, and fruits, with mineral waters. In some places also petroleum is skimmed off the surface of the water of deep wells, made on purpose; and in others is found a kind of earth or tophus, which, when pulverised, is said to be an excellent remedy

against poison, fevers, dysenteries, and hypochondriac disorders. The country of La Salsa affords several kinds of petrifactions.

Its capital, Modena, is an antient city; it stands 28 miles east of Parma, 44 almost south of Mantua, and 20 west of Bologna; and is a pretty large and populous, but not a handsome city. It is much celebrated by Roman authors for its grandeur and opulence, but was a great sufferer by the siege it underwent during the troubles of the triumvirate. It was long the usual residence of the dukes; and is also the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Bologna. Mr. Keyler says that when Decius Brutus was besieged here by Mark Antony, Hirtius, the consul, made use of carrier pigeons; and that even at this day, pigeons are trained up at Modena, to carry letters and bring back answers. This city hath given birth to several celebrated persons, particularly Tasso the poet, Correggio the grand painter, Sigonius the civilian and historian, Da Vignola the architect, and Montecuculi the imperial general. The tutelary saint of it is named Geminianus. The ducal palace is a very noble edifice, in which, among the other fine pictures, the birth of Christ by Correggio, called la Notte Felice, is much celebrated. The only manufacture for which this city is noted is that of masks, of which great numbers are exported. The churches of the Jesuits, of the Theatines, and of St. Dominic, are well worth viewing. In the college of St. Carlo Boromeo between 70 and 80 young noblemen are continually maintained, and instructed both in sciences and genteel exercises. Before most of the houses are covered walks or porticoes, as at Bologna. The city is fortified, and on its south side stands the citadel.

The duchy of Mantua lies along the river Po, which divides it into two parts. It is bounded on the north by the Veronese; on the south by the duchies of Reggio, Modena, and Mirandola; on the east by the Farrarese; and on the west by the Cremonese. It is about 50 miles in length, and 25 in breadth; is fruitful in corn, pastures, flax, fruits, and excellent wine. It is now a large place, having eight gates and about 16,000 inhabitants. The streets are broad and straight, and the houses well built. It is very strong by situation as well as by art; lying in the middle of a lake, or rather morass, formed by the river Minchio. There is no access to the city but by two causeways which cross this morasss, and which are strongly fortified; so that this city is looked upon to be one of the most considerable fortresses of Europe. It was greatly noted for its silk manufactures, which are now much decayed. The air, in the summer-time, is very unwholesome. The celebrated poet Virgil was born at a village near this city.

The territories of the republic of Venice, contained the city of Venice, built on a number of islands in the Adriatic sea, the provinces of the terra firma, namely the Paduan, Veronese, Bresciano, Bergamasco, Cremasco, Vicentino, Rovigno, Trevignano, Bellunes, Friuli, Udinese, and part of Istria; the towns of Zara, Nona, Spalatto, Sabinico, Segna in Morlachia, and the islands of Cephalonia, Corfu, Zante, &c. in or near the gulph of Venice.

We have already mentioned the situation of Venice, the capital of this republic. Its appearance at a distance is very striking, looking like a great town half floated by a deluge. Betwixt the city and the terra firma are a great many shallows, on which, at low

water, you may almost every where touch the bottom with a pole; but all possible care is taken to prevent their becoming dry land. On the south side of the city are also shallows; but on these there is great depth of water. The channels betwixt them are marked out by stakes or poles, which on the approach of an enemy, would certainly be taken away. The city is divided by a vast number of canals, on which ply the gondoliers, or watermen, in their black gondolas, or boats. The streets are very clean and neat, but narrow and crooked. There are no carriages, not so much as a chair to be seen in them. Though the city, by its situation and the great number of steeples towering above the water, strikes one with admiration at a distance, yet, when he is got into it, it does not answer his expectation; for, excepting the square of St. Mark and a few other places, there is nothing grand or beautiful in it; at least in comparison of many other cities of Italy. Of the canals, that called Il Canale Maggiore, or the "great canal," is by far the largest and longest, and consequently the most beautiful. Here races are sometimes run for prizes in the gondolas. On its banks are also several stately houses. Over these canals are a great number of handsome bridges of one arch, but without any fence on either side; they are also built of white stone, with which the streets are all paved, except the Rialto, over the great canal, which is all of marble, and cost the republic 250,000 ducats, the arch being 90 feet wide. The canals, in summer, emit a bad smell from the great quantities of filth continually running into them. The finest gondolas are those in which the foreign ministers make their public entries, being richly decorated with gilding, painting, and sculpture. The number of islands on which this city stands, according to some, is 60; according so others 72. The circumference is about six Italian miles; and it takes up about two hours to make the circuit of it in a gondola. The inhabitants are supposed to be about 150,000, including those of the islands Murano, La Guideca, and those who live on board the barges. There are near 200 springs of fresh water in the city; but the water of many of them is so indifferent, that the principal families preserve rain water in cisterns, or are supplied with water from the Brenta. The most remarkable places in the city are the ducal palace, the square and church of St. Mark, who is the tutelar saint of Venice; the mint, public library, grand arsenal, several of the palaces of the nobles, churches, convents, and hospitals. In these last is a prodigious collection of the finest paintings; Venice, in this respect, even surpassing Rome itself. The diversions of the Venetians are chiefly masquerading, especially during the carnival and other festivals; ridottes, operas, plays, which are generally wretched performances, and concerts of vocal and instrumental music. During their festivals debauchery, riot, and licentiousness are carried to the greatest height. The courtezans here, we are told, are absolutely lost to all sense of modesty and common decency. The grand scene of all follies of the festivals is the square of St. Mark, in which bulls are sometims baited. In the doge's palace all the high colleges held their assemblies; but we are told by several travellers, what seems very strange, that the stairs are no better than a privy. In this palace is a small arsenal, furnished with arms, against any sudden insurrection of the people, together with a state prison, a great many exquisite paintings, and several curiosities. One side of it is towards St. Mark's square; and the lower gallery on that.

side, with the hall under the new procuratie facing it, are called the Broglio, where the nobility, and none else, at least while they are present, are allowed to walk. The square of St. Mark is the greatest ornament of the city, and hath the form of a parallelogram. In this square, beside the palace, and church of St. Mark, are two towers, on one side of which is a curious clock; and the other has stairs so constructed that one may ride up on horseback. Opposite to the ducal palace is the public library of the common wealth; containing a large collection of books and manuscripts, with some fine paintings, statues, and curiosities. Hard by St. Mark's square is the zecca, or mint: from zecca the gold coin called zecchino, take its name. One of the smallest pieces of money at Venice is called gazetta; and the first newspapers published there on a single leaf, having been sold for that a-piece, all kinds of newspapers were from thence styled gazettes. The grand arsenal is two and a half Italian miles in circuit, and contains vast quantities of naval and other warlike stores; some pretend that it could furnish arms for 10,000 horse and 100,000 foot: here are the trophies of Scanderbeg and others, with the helmet of Attila, &c. The rope is 444 common paces in length, and the ropes and cables are valued at 2,000,000 of silver ducats. In the foundry none but brass cannon are cast, and 100 men are generally at work in the forges. The salt-petre works here deserve a traveller's notice: there is a vessel filled with wine and water, four times a-day, where the workmen, though a thousand or more, may drink as much and as often as they please. Close to the Rialto is the bank. The trade of the city, at present, is far short of what it was formerly. Their chief manufactures are cloth, especially scarlet, silks, gold and silver stuffs, brocades, velvets, and paper, of which, and wine, oil, fruit, sweetmeats, anchovies, and several sorts of drugs used in physic and painting the exports are still considerable. Venice has neither walls, gates, nor citadel to defend it; its situation supplying the want of all these. In the treasury of the relics is the protocoll, or original manuscript, as they pretend, of St. Mark's gospel; it is rarely shown; and the writing, by length of time, is so defaced, that the greatest connoisseurs in manuscripts cannot determine whether it is wrote in Greek or Latin. Besides what is properly called the city, there is a multitude of little islands lying round, which are covered with buildings, and make each of them a kind of separate town; the most considerable of which is that called Guideca, or the Jew's quarter, which is large and populous; with St. Erosmo, St. Helena, St. Georgio, Chiosa, Il Lido de Palestrina, Il Lido de Malamocco, and Murano: these islands are a sort of fence to the city, breaking the violence of the waves. To distinguish them from others, the Jews here must wear a bit of red cloth in their hats. The gardens in this city are few and inconsiderable. In the island of Murano are made those beautiful looking-glasses and other glass-works, for which Venice is so much noted: here the family of Cornaro hath a palace, with a gallery of paintings, little short of an Italian mile in length. The salt works in the island of Chiosa are of great benefit to the Venetians, and yield a very considerable revenue. There are several other small islands about Venice besides these we have mentioned; but they are inconsiderable.

As to the government of this state it was first vested in consuls, afterwards in tri-

banes. About the beginning of the 8th century, a doge or duke was elected, and vested with unlimited power; but in 1171 the power of the doge was much abridged, and a council of 240 persons, composed of commons as well as nobles, was appointed. Soon after, under duke Morino Morosini, the late form of electing the doge was introduced. In 1296 the government became aristocratical; the privilege of sitting in the great council being then confined to the nobility, in whom alone the supreme authority at present is vested. The number of nobles amounted to about 2000. All those were members of the senate; but, according to their antiquity, some were accounted more honourable than others. One class, and that the lowest, consisted of the posterity of those, who, in the necessitous times of the commmonwealth, purchased their nobility for 100,000 ducats. The nobles had the title of Excellency; and wore, at least when in the city, a black furred gown reaching to their heels, with long caps and perriwigs. Some of them were so poor, that they were fain to beg of the rich. At the head of the government was the doge, whose office was once heriditary, and power absolute; but the former was afterward elective, and the latter very much circumscribed; indeed he was no more than a gaudy slave, loaded with fetters, which, one would think, could not be much the lighter for being gilt; yet so much is the human heart captivated with external pomp and pageantry, that the office, for the most part, was eagerly sought after; but should one otherwise inclined be chosen, he could decline it, without exposing himself to banishment and confiscation of his effects. Though the power of the doge was very small, his state and retinue were very splendid; his title was that of Serenity, and his office for life; he was said to be a king with regard to his robes, a senator in the council-house, a prisoner in the city, and a private man out of it. The yearly revenue of his office was about 10000*l*; and though he might be deposed, he could not resign his dignity. All the nobility had a seat in the great council, unless they were under 25 years of age. In this council the supreme authority and legislative power was vested. Next to it was the senate or pregradi, which consisted of about 250 members, who had the power of making peace or war, and foreign alliances; of appointing ambassadors; fixing the standard of the coins; imposing duties and taxes; and all offices by sea and land were in their gift. The third council consisted of the doge and his six counsellors, in which all letters and instruments relating to the state are read, ambassadors admitted to audience, and other important affairs transacted. The other colleges were the council of ten, which decided all criminal cases without appeal, and to which even the doge himself was subject; the procurators of St. Mark, whose office was very lucrative, and who decided with respect to wills, guardianships, and the making a proper provision for the poor; and the state inquisition, whose business it was to provide for the public tranquility. In the wall of the ducal palace are heads of lions and leopards, with open mouths, to receive informations of any plot or treason against the state. Here was also a particular college for the regulation of dress, but their jurisdiction did not extend to strangers. The method of electing the doge was no less singular than complicated and effectually calculated to prevent all kinds of bribery or corruption. All the members of the grand council who

were past 30 years of age being assembled in the hall of the palace, as many balls were put into an urn as there were members present, 30 of these balls were gilt, the rest white. Each counsellor drew one; and those who got the gilt balls went into another room, where there was an urn containing 30 balls, nine of which were gilt. The 30 members drew again; and those who by a second piece of good fortune got the gilt balls, were the first electors, and had a right to choose 40, among whom they comprehended themselves.

These 40, by balloting in the same manner as in the former instances, were reduced to 12 second electors, who chose 25; the first of the 12 naming three, and the remaining 11 two a-piece. All those being assembled in a chamber apart, each of them drew a ball from an urn containing 25 balls, among which are nine gilt. This reduced them to nine third electors, each of whom chose five, making in all 45; who, as in the preceding instances, were reduced by ballot to 11 fourth electors, and they have the nomination of 41, who were the direct electors of the doge. Being shut up by themselves, they began by choosing three chiefs and two secretaries; each elector being then called, threw a little billet into an urn, which stood on a table before the chiefs. On this billet was inscribed the person's name whom the elector wished to be doge.

The secretaries then, in the presence of the chiefs and of the whole assembly, opened the billets. Among all the 41 there were generally but a very few different names; as the election for the most part balanced between two or three candidates. Their names, whatever was their number, were put into another urn, and drawn out one after another. As soon as a name was extracted the secretary read it, and if the person to whom it belonged was present, he immediately retired. One of the chiefs then demanded with a loud voice whether any crime could be laid to this person's charge, or any objection was made, the accused was called in, and heard in his own defence; after which the electors proceeded to give their decision, by throwing a ball into one of the two boxes, one of which is for the Ayes, and the other for the Noes. The secretaries then counted the balls; and if there were 25 in the first, the election was finished; if not another name was read, and the same inquisition made as before, till there were 25 appearing balls.

The principal Venetian order of knighthood, was that of St. Mark; the badge of which is a large gold medal dependent on the breast. The order of Constantine knights wear a cross hanging from a gold chain.

With respect to religion, that of the Venetians was the Roman Catholic; but they are no bigots. The court of Inquisition was here under very great restrictions; and the pope was considered as little more than a temporal prince, his supremacy being rejected.

The Venetians were the greatest naval power in Italy. They pretended they could fit out, in case of necessity, 60 men of war, 100 galleys, and 10 galeasses; though one can hardly imagine how they could man half that number. The army was said to consist of between 20,000 and 30,000 men, the greatest part of which are Dalmatians and Switzers. The commander in chief, styled Capitano, was always a foreigner of distinction; General Grame, a Scotchman, lately enjoyed that honourable post. The ordi-

nary revenues of the state were computed at about 1,200,000*l.* sterling; but in the time of war they could raise them greatly. A considerable part of the revenue arose from the customs, and the duty on salt made at Corfu and Chiosa.

The Venetians are in general very tall and well made. They are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, with an uncommon relish for humour, and yet more attached to the real enjoyments of life, than to those which depend on ostentation, and proceed from vanity.

One of the principal cities in the Venetian territories, on the terra firma, is Padua an antient, large, and celebrated town, with an university and a bishop's see. It is much less considerable than it was formerly; for now it contains no more than 50,000 inhabitants, whereas it formerly had 100,000, and many of the houses are gone to ruin; however the hall where justice is administered is a superb structure. The cathedral church and the college of the university are in that part called the Old Town; and there are piazzas under all the houses, where persons may walk without being exposed to the weather. The garden of the university is curious on account of the number of plants. Here a student may take his degrees, let him be of what sect of Christianity he will; nay though he should be a Jew or a Turk. The patron of this city is St. Anthony, who lies in the cathedral; they have such a veneration for him, that the beggars do not ask charity in the name of God, but for the love of St. Anthony. The Jews live in a distinct part of the city; and the neighbouring mountains produce excellent wine and oil, with delicious fruit.

Verona is strongly fortified, and contains about 60,000 inhabitants.

Lucca was a small republic on the coast of the Mediterranean, between the territories of Genoa on the west, Modena on the north, and Tuscany on the east. According to Keysler it is only about 30 miles in circumference, but is exceeding fertile and populous. It contains, beside the city of Lucca, 150 villages. The number of the inhabitants are computed at 120,000. The government was lodged in a gofalonier, whose power was much the same with that of the doges of Venice and Genoa. He was assisted by nine counsellors; but the power of all the 10 continued only for two months; during which time they lived in the state-palace, and at the public expence. They were chosen out of the great council, which consisted of 240 nobles; but even this election was changed by a new election every two years. The revenues of the republic were about 400,000 scudi or crowns; out of which they maintained 500 men by way of regular force, and 70 Swiss as a guard to their acting magistrates. The city of Lucca is situated in a plain, terminating in most delightful eminences, adorned with villas, summer-houses, corn fields, and plantations of every kind; so that nothing, either for use or pleasure, is here wanting. The city, which is about three Italian miles in circumference, has regular, well-lined fortifications; and its streets, though irregular, are wide, well paved, and full of handsome houses. The number of its inhabitants are computed to be above 40,000; and they carry on large manufactures, especially of silk-stuffs. Lucca has a bishop, who enjoys several extraordinary privileges; and its cathedral is Gothic.

Tuscany is bounded on the north by the states of Lucca and Modena; on the north-

east, east, and south-east by the dominions of the pope; on the south-west and west by the Mediterranean or Tuscan sea. Its extent, from north to south, is about 180 English miles, and from east to west about 80.

Though some parts of Tuscany are mountainous, it is fruitful in vines, olives, citrons, lemons, and oranges. The mountains afford copper, iron, alum, marble, and porphyry. In general it may be observed that this country abounds in corn, saffron, honey, hemp, flax, wool, and a great variety of minerals. The great duke was supposed to be able to bring 30,000 men into the field, and to increase his marine to 20 men of war, beside galleys.

The principal places are Florence, Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna.

Florence, the capital, is one of the finest cities in Italy. It is surrounded on all sides but one with high hills, which rise insensibly, and, at last, join with the lofty mountains called Appenines. Towards Pisa there is a vast plain of 10 miles in length; which is so filled with villages and pleasure-houses, that they seem to be a continuation of the suburbs of the city. Independent of the churches and palaces of Florence, most of which are very magnificent, the architecture of the houses, in general, is in a good taste; and the streets are remarkably clean, and paved with large stones chiseled so as to prevent the horses from sliding. The city is divided into two unequal parts by the river Arno, over which there are no less than four bridges, in sight of each other. That called the Ponte della Trinita, which is uncommonly elegant, is built entirely of white marble, and ornamented with four beautiful statues representing the Seasons. The quays, the buildings on each side, and the bridges, render that part of Florence through which the river runs, by far the finest. Every corner of this beautiful city is full of wonders in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. The streets, squares, and fronts of the palaces are adorned with a great number of statues; some of them by the best modern masters, Michael Angelo, Bandinelli, Donatello, Giovanni di Bologna, Benvenuto Cellini, and others. Some of the Florentine merchants formerly were men of vast wealth, and lived in a most magnificent manner. One of them, about the middle of the 15th century, built that noble fabric, which, from the name of its founder, is still called the Palazzo Pitti. The man was ruined by the prodigious expence of this building, which was immediately purchased by the Medici family, and has continued ever since to be the residence of the sovereigns. The gardens belonging to this palace are on the declivity of an eminence. On the summit there is a kind of fort, called Belvedere. From this, and from some of the higher walks, you have a complete view of the city of Florence, and the beauteous vale of Arno, in the middle of which it stands. This palace has been enlarged since it was purchased from the ruined family of Pitti. The furniture is rich and curious, particularly some tables of Florentine work, which are much admired. The most precious ornaments, however, are the paintings. The walls of what is called the Imperial Chamber, are painted in fresco, by various painters; the subjects are allegorical, and in honour of Lorenzo of Medicis distinguished by the name of the Magnificent. The famous gallery attracts every stranger. One of the most interesting parts of it, in the eyes of many, is the series of Roman emperors from Julius

Cæsar to Gallienus, with a considerable number of their empresses arranged opposite to them. This series is almost complete; but wherever the bust of an emperor is wanting, the place is filled up by that of some other distinguished Roman. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called Tribunal. The inscription on its base mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and surrounded by other master-pieces of sculpture, some of which are said to be the works of Praxitelds and other Greek masters. In the same room are many valuable curiosities, besides a collection of admirable pictures by the best masters. There are various other rooms, whose contents are indicated by the names they bear; as the Cabinet of Arts, of Astronomy, of Natural History, of Medals, of Porcelain, of Antiquities; the Saloon of the Hermaphrodite, so called from a statue which divides the admiration of the amateurs with that in the Borghese village at Rome, though the excellence of the execution is disgraced by the vileness of the subject: and the Gallery of Portraits, which contains the portraits of the most eminent painters (all executed by themselves) who have flourished in Europe during the last three centuries. Our limits will not admit of a detail of the hundredth part of the curiosities and buildings of Florence. We must not, however, omit mentioning the Chapel of St. Lorenzo, as being, perhaps, the finest and most expensive habitation that ever was reared for the dead; it is encrusted with precious stones, and adorned by the workmanship of the best modern sculptors. Mr. Addison remarked, that this chapel advanced so very slowly, that it is not impossible but the family of Medicis may be extinct before their burial-place is finished. This has actually taken place: the Medici family is extinct, and the chapel remains still unfinished.

Florence is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see and an university. The number of inhabitants is calculated at 80,000. They boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Crusca, and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they sell from their cellar windows, and sometimes they even hang a broken flask as a sign where it may be bought. They deal, besides wine and fruits, in gold and silver stuffs. The Jews are not held in that odium, or subjected to the same humiliating distinction here, as in most other cities of Europe; and it is said that some of the richest merchants are of that religion.

Pisa is a large city, but in no respect equal to what it was when an independent republic. The neighbourhood of Leghorn, with which it is connected by a canal, is supposed to be one cause of its decay. Its streets are handsome and well paved, but in many places overgrown with grass. The cathedral, the campo santo or burying place, the steeple of the Augustinians, the church of St. Matthew, that of the knights of St. Stephen, and the palace of the grand duke are very celebrated. The city is remarkably rich in curiosities, whether paintings, statues, or antiquities.

It is difficult to describe the present state of Leghorn, we shall therefore confine our-

selves to its condition previous to the late invasions of Italy. Its inhabitants were about 45,000, including Jews, Turks, Armenians, Greeks, English, and other foreigners. All of them, who are here named, are allowed the use of public worship, but that indulgence was not granted to any other protestants than the English. The Jews live in a quarter by themselves, as do also such of the Turks as are not slaves. The former nation is said to claim a third part of the inhabitants of Leghorn, and to carry on a very profitable trade in corals. The ducal palace is a very fine structure.

Sienna is a large, antient city, with an archbishop's see, an university, and a citadel. The cathedral, though a Gothic building, is admired for its excellent architecture; its walls are black and white marble, and its pavement Mosaic. The Italian is here spoken in its greatest purity.

The dominions of the pope comprehend the Ferrarese, Bolognese, Romania, Urbino, Ancona, Umbria, St. Peter's patrimony, and the campania of Rome. This country is naturally fertile, and was, in the time of Roman prosperity, crowded with inhabitants, but it is now very thinly peopled, and very negligently cultivated. Its principal cities beside Rome, the capital, are Tivoli, Frescati, Ostia, Albano, Viterbo, Cavita Vecchia, Bracciano, Castro, Orivetto, Aqua pendente, Spolletto, Nerni, Terni, Perugia, Ancona, Loretto, Urbino, Pesaro, Semigallia, Ravenna, Rimini, Bologna, Ferrara, and Comachia.

Ferrara is a decayed town, whose inhabitants live generally in the most abject poverty.

The following description of Loretto, extracted with little variation from a respectable work, may be considered as a fine satire on Italian superstition. Loretto is small but fortified, and contains the famous Casa Santa, or holy chapel, so much visited by pilgrims. This chapel, according to the legend, was originally a small house in Nazareth, inhabited by the Virgin Mary, in which she was saluted by the angel, and where she bred our Saviour. After their deaths, it was held in great veneration by all believers in Jesus, and at length consecrated into a chapel, and dedicated to the Virgin: upon which occasion St. Luke made that identical image, which is still preserved here, and dignified with the name of our Lady of Loretto. This sanctified edifice was allowed to sojourn in Galilee, as long as that district was inhabited by Christians; but when infidels got possession of the country, a band of angels, to save it from pollution, took it in their arms and conveyed it from Nazareth to a castle in Dalmatia. This fact would have been called in question by incredulous people, had it been performed in a secret manner; but, that it might be manifest to the most short sighted spectator, and evident to all who were not perfectly deaf as well as blind, a blaze of celestial light, and a concert of divine music accompanied it during the whole journey; besides, when the angels, to rest themselves, set it down in a little wood near the road, all the trees of the forest bowed their heads to the ground, and continued in that respectful posture as long as the sacred chapel remained among them. But not having been entertained with suitable respect at the castle above mentioned, the same indefatigable angels carried it over the sea, and placed it in a field belonging to a noble lady, called Lauretta, from whom the chapel takes its name. This field happened, unfortunately, to be frequented at that time by high-

waymen and murderers: a circumstance with which the angels undoubtedly were not acquainted when they placed it there. After they were better informed, they removed it to the top of a hill, belonging to two brothers, where they imagined it would be perfectly secure from the dangers of robbery or assassination; but the two brothers, the proprietors of the ground, being equally enamoured of their new visitor, became jealous of each other, quarrelled, fought, and fell by mutual wounds. After this fatal catastrophe, the angels in waiting finally moved the holy chapel to the eminence where it now stands, and has stood these 400 years, having lost all relish for travelling.

The sacred chapel stands due east and west, at the farther end of a large church, of the most durable stone of Istria, which has been built around it. This may be considered as the external covering, or as a kind of great coat to the Casa Santa, which has a smaller coat, of more precious materials and workmanship, nearer its body. This internal covering, or case, is of the choicest marble, after a plan of San Savino's, and ornamented with basso relievos, the workmanship of the best sculptors which Italy could furnish in the reign of Leo X. The subject of those basso relievos are the history of the blessed Virgin, and other parts of the Bible. The whole case is about 50 feet long, 30 in breadth, and the same in height; but the real house itself is 32 feet in length, 14 in breadth, and at the sides about 18 feet in height; the centre of the roof is four or five feet higher. The walls of this little holy chapel are composed of pieces of a reddish substance, of an oblong square shape, laid upon another in the manner of brick. At first sight, on a superficial view, these red-coloured oblong substances appear to be nothing else than common Italian bricks; and, which is still more extraordinary, on a second and third view, with all possible attention, they still have the same appearance. Travellers, however, are assured with great earnestness, that there is not a single particle of brick in their whole composition, being entirely of a stone, which, though it cannot now be found in Palestine, was formerly very common, particularly in the neighbourhood of Nazareth.

The holy house is divided within into two unequal portions, by a kind of grate-work of silver. The division towards the west is about three fourths of the whole; that to the east is called the Sanctuary. In the larger division, which may be considered as the main body of the house, the walls are left bare, to shew the true original fabric of Nazareth stone; for they must not be supposed to be bricks. At the lower or western wall there is a window, the same through which the angel Gabriel entered at the Annunciation. The architraves of this window are covered with silver. There are a great number of golden and silver lamps in this chapel, one of the former, a present from the republic of Venice, is said to weigh 37 pounds; and some of the silver lamps are said to weigh from 120 to 130 pounds. At the upper end of the largest room is the altar, but so low that from it you may see the famous image, which stands over the chimney, in the small room or sanctuary. Golden and silver angels, of considerable size, kneel around her; some offering hearts of gold enriched with diamonds, and one an infant of pure gold. The wall of the sanctuary is plated with silver, and adorned with crucifixes, precious stones, and votive gifts of various kinds. The figure of the Virgin herself by

no means corresponds with the fine furniture of her house : she is a little woman, about four feet in height, with the features and complexion of a Negro. Of all the sculptors that ever existed, assuredly St. Luke, by whom this figure is said so have been made, is the least of a flatterer ; and nothing can be a stronger proof of the blessed Virgin's contempt for external beauty, than her being satisfied with this representation of her. The figure of the infant Jesus, by St. Luke, is of a piece with that of the Virgin : he holds a large golden globe in one hand, and the other is extended in the act of blessing. Both figures have crowns on their heads, enriched with diamonds : these were presents from Ann of Austria, queen of France. Both arms of the Virgin are inclosed within her robes, and no part but her face is to be seen ; her dress is most magnificent, but in a wretched bad taste : this is not surprising, for she has no female attendant. She has particular clothes for the different feasts held in honour of her ; and, which is not quite so decent, is always dressed and undressed by the priests belonging to the chapel ; her robes are ornamented with all kinds of precious stones, down to the hem of her garment.

There is a small place behind the sanctuary, in which are shown the chimney and some other furniture, which they pretend belonged to the Virgin when she lived at Nazareth ; particularly a little earthen porringer, out of which the infant used to eat. The pilgrims bring rosaries, little crucifixes, and Agnus Dei's, which the obliging priest shakes for half a minute in this dish ; after which it is believed they acquire the virtue of curing various diseases, and prove an excellent preventative of all temptations of Satan. The gown, which the image had on when the chapel arrived from Nazareth, is of red camblet, and carefully kept in a glass shrine.

Above 100 masses are daily said in this chapel and in the church in which it stands. The jewels and riches to be seen at one time in the holy chapel, are of small value in comparison of those in the treasury, which is a large room adjoining to the vestry of the great church. In the presses of this room are kept those presents which royal, noble, and rich bigots, of all ranks, have, by oppressing their subjects, and injuring their families, sent to this place. To enumerate every particular would fill volumes. They consist of various utensils and other things in silver and gold ; as lamps, candlesticks, goblets, crowns, and crucifixes ; lambs, eagles, saints, apostles, angels, virgins, and infants ; then there are cameos, pearls, gems, and precious stones of all kinds and in great numbers. What is valued above all the other jewels is the miraculous pearl, wherein they assert that nature has given a faithful delineation of the Virgin, sitting on a cloud, with the infant Jesus in her arms. There was not room in the presses of the treasury to hold all the silver pieces which have been presented to the Virgin. Several other presses in the vestry are completely full. It is said that those pieces are occasionally melted down by his holiness, for the use of the state ; and also that the most precious of the jewels are picked out and sold for the same purpose, false stones being substituted in their room.

The only trade of Loretto consists of rosaries, crucifixes, little Madonas, Agnus Dei's, and medals, which are manufactured here, and sold to pilgrims. There are a great numbers of shops full of these commodities, some of them of a high price ; but infinitely the

greater part are adapted to the pursers of the buyers, and sold for a mere trifle. The evident poverty of these manufacturers and traders, and of the inhabitants of this town in general, is a sufficient proof that the reputation of our Lady of Loretto is greatly on the decline.

In the great church, which contains the holy chapel, are confessionals, where the penitents from every country of Europe may be confessed in their own language, priests being always in waiting for that purpose: each of them has a long white rod in his hand, with which he touches the heads of those to whom he thinks proper to grant absolution. They place themselves on their knees, in groups, around the confessional chair; and, when the holy father has touched their heads with the expiatory rod, they retire, freed from the burden of their sins, and with renewed courage to begin a fresh account.

In the spacious area before this church there is an elegant marble fountain, supplied with water from an adjoining hill by an aqueduct. Few, even of the most inconsiderable towns of Italy, are without the useful ornament of a public fountain. The embellishments of sculpture and architecture are employed with great propriety on such works, which are continually in the people's view; the air is refreshed, and the eye delighted by the streams of water they pour forth; a sight peculiarly agreeable in a warm climate. In this area is also a statue of Sixtus V. in bronze. Over the portal of the church itself is the statue of the Virgin; and above the middle gate is a Latin inscription, importing that within is the house of the mother of God, in which the word was made flesh. The gates of the church are likewise of bronze, embellished with basso relievos of admirable workmanship; the subjects taken partly from the Old and partly from the New Testament, and divided into different compartments. As the gates of this church are shut at noon, the pilgrims, who arrive after that time, can get no nearer the santa casa than these gates, which are by this means, sometimes exposed to the first violence of that holy ardour, which was designed for the chapel itself. All the sculpture upon the gates, which is within reach of the mouths of these zealots, is, in some degree, effaced by their kisses.

There are also several paintings to be seen here; some of which are highly esteemed, particularly two in the treasury. The subject of one of these is the Virgin's Nativity, by Annibal Carracci; and of the other a holy family by Raphael. There are some others of considerable merit, which ornament the altars of the great church. These altars or little chapels, of which this fabric contains a great number, are lined with marble, and embellished by sculpture; but nothing within this church interests a traveller of sensibility so much as the iron gates before those chapels, which were made of the fetters and chains of the Christian slaves, who were freed from boadage by the glorious victory of Lepanto.

The palace where the governor resides stands near the church, and the ecclesiastics, who are employed in it, lodge in the same place, where they receive the pilgrims of high distinction. The environs of this towns are very agreeable; and, in fine weather, the high mountains of Croatia may be seen from hence.

Ravenna was founded by a colony of Thessalonians, on the Adriatic, in wastes or a

boggy situation, which proved a natural security to it. The houses were all of wood, the communication by bridges and boats, and the town kept sweet and clean by the tides carrying away the mud and soil. Antiently it had a port at the mouth of the Bedesis; Augustus added a new port capacious enough to hold a fleet, for the security of the Adriatic, between which and the city lay the Via Cæsaris. It had a very flourishing trade till the sea withdrew two miles from it, which has been a great detriment. The fortifications are of little importance, and the citadel is gone to ruin. It is now most remarkable for the excellent wine produced in its neighbourhood. The mausoleum of Theodoric is still to be seen, remarkable for being covered by a single stone 28 feet in diameter and 15 thick.

It is thought that the walls of modern Rome take in nearly the same extent of ground as the antient; but the difference of the number of buildings on this spot is very great, one half of modern Rome lying waste, or occupied with gardens, fields, meadows and vineyards. One may walk quite round the city in three or four hours at most, the circumference being reckoned about 13 Italian miles. With regard to the number of the inhabitants, modern Rome is greatly inferior to the antient; for in 1709, the whole of these amounted only to 138,568; among which were 40 bishops, 2686 priests, 559 monks, 1814 nuns, 393 courtezans, about 8000 or 9000 Jews, and 14 Moors. In 1714 the number was increased to 143,000. In external splendour, and the beauty of its temples and palaces, modern Rome is thought by the most judicious travellers, to exceed the antient. There was nothing in antient Rome to be compared with St. Peter's church in the modern. That Rome was able to recover itself after so many calamities and devastations, will not be matter of surprise, if we consider the prodigious sums that it has so long annually drawn from all countries of the popish persuasion. These sums, though still considerable, have been continually decreasing since the reformation. The surface of the ground, on which Rome was originally founded, is surprisingly altered. At present it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills, on which it was first built, the low grounds being almost filled up with the ruins of the antient streets and houses, and the great quantities of earth washed down from the hills by the violence of the rains. Antiently the suburbs extended a vast way on all sides, and made the city appear almost boundless; but it is quite otherwise now, the country about Rome being almost a desert. To this, and other causes it is owing, that the air is none of the most wholesome, especially during the summer heats, when few go abroad in day-time. No city at present in the world surpasses, or indeed equals Rome, for the multiplicity of fine fountains, noble edifices, antiquities, curiosities, paintings, statues, and sculptures. The city stands on the Tiber, 10 miles from the Tuscan sea, 380 from Vienna, 560 from Paris, 740 from Amsterdam, 810 from London, and 900 from Madrid. The Tiber is subject to frequent inundations, by which it often does great damages. A small part of the city is separated from the other, by the river, and is therefore called Travestere, beyond the Tiber. There are several bridges over the river, a great number of towers on the walls, and 20 gates. The remains of Rome's antient grandeur consist of statues, colossuses, temples, palaces theatres, naumachias, triumphal arches, circuses, columns, obelisks, fountains,

aqueducts, mausoleums, thermæ or hot baths, and other structures. Of modern buildings, the splendid churches and palaces are the most remarkable. Mr. Addison says, it is almost impossible for a man to form in his imagination such beautiful and glorious scenes as are to be met with in several of the Roman churches and chapels. This gentleman tells us also, that no part of the antiquities of Rome pleased him so much as the antient statues, of which there is still an incredible variety. Next to the statues, he says, there is nothing more surprising than the amazing variety of antient pillars of so many kinds of marble. Rome is said to be well paved; but not well lighted or kept very clean. Two thirds of the houses are the property of the churches and convents, and alms-houses. Protestants are not obliged to kneel at the elevation of the host, or at meeting the eucharist in the streets; and they may have flesh meat always at the inns, even during lent. Here are many academies for promoting arts and sciences, besides the university. The carnival here is only during the eight days before lent, and there are no such scenes of riot as at Venice: prostitutes, however, are publicly tolerated. To maintain good order there is a body of 300 Sbirri, or Halbedeers, under their barigella or colonel. There is little or no trade carried on in Rome, but a vast deal of money is spent by travellers and other strangers. The principal modern structures are the church of St. Peter, and the other churches; the aqueducts and fountains; the Vatican, and the other palaces; the Campidolio, where the Roman senate resides, &c. The principal remains of antiquity are the pila miliaria of fine marble; the equestrian brass statue of Marcus Aurelius Antonius; the marble monument of the emperor Alexander Severus; marble busts of the emperors and their consorts; three brick arches of the temple of Peace, built by the emperor Vespasian; the triumphal arch of Septimus Severus, and of Gallienus; the circus of Antonius Caracalla; some parts of the cloaca maxima; the columna Antonia, representing the principal actions of Marcus Aurelius; the Trajan's pillar; some fragments of the palace of Antoninus Pius, and of Nerva's forum; the mausoleum of Augustus, in the Strato Pontifica; the remains of the emperor Severus's tomb without St. John's gate; the pyramid of Caius Cestus near St. Paul's gate; the pophyry coffin of St. Helen, and the original statue of Constantine the Great, in the church of St. John of Lateran; a font of oriental granite in the chapel of St. Giovanni in fonte, said to have been erected by Constantine the Great, an Egyptian obelisk near the church of St. Maria Maggiore; the stately remains of Diocesian's baths; the celebrated Pantheon; the obelisks of Sesostris and Augustus, by the Clementine college; the church of St. Paul fuori della Mura, and to have been built by Constantine the Great; the Farnese Hercules, in white marble, of a colossian size and exquisite workmanship, in a court of the Farnese palace, and an admirable group cut out of one block of marble, in another court of the same palace. Besides these there are a great many more, which our bounds will not allow us to take any further notice of. Here is a great number of rich and well regulated hospitals. Near the church of St. Sebastino alle Catacombe are the most spacious of the catacombs, where the Christians, who never burned their dead, and such of the pagan Romans as could not afford the expence of burning, were buried. Along the Via Appia, without St.

Sebastian's gate, where the tombs of the principal families of Rome, which at present are used for cellars and store-houses by the gardeners and vine dressers.

The late kingdom of Naples, or as it was otherwise denominated of the two Sicilies, comprehended the following provinces on the main land of Italy: Lavora, Principato Citra, Principato Ultra, Molise, Basilicata, Calabria Citra, Calabria Ultra, Abbruzzo Citra, Abbruzzo Ultra, Capitinata, Terra di Bari, and Terra di Otranto. The winter is here exceedingly mild, the summer is hot, and the spring marked usually by the return of the Sirocco, a south-east wind, that, during the 20 days of its continuance, dries up the buds of vegetables, and relaxes the nerves of the inhabitants. Notwithstanding this circumstance, the country is so fertile in all sorts of grain, flax, olives, vines, and excellent fruits, that it has obtained the appellation of a terrestrial paradise. Its mineral productions are alum, rock crystal, and marble. Fine wool, silk, and the filaments of a shell-fish, furnish the materials for several manufactures. The Neapolitans, though distinguished for the number of ecclesiastical persons, rank very low in morality, being chargeable with every vice except drunkenness.

The city of Naples, one of the finest in Italy or even in Europe, is built in the form of an amphitheatre, sloping from the hills to the bay of Naples. Although inferior to Rome in public building, it has finer streets and more commodious private houses than any to be met with in that celebrated city. On the flat roofs of the houses are placed numbers of flower vases, and fruit-trees in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. The inhabitants, who amount to 350,000, are but little employed in trade or manufacture. They are however celebrated for liquors and confections, and have been thought to embroider better than the French. Their nobility were numerous and poor, but affected great splendor. The cathedral is a grand Gothic edifice, and of all the palaces, the king's was the most magnificent.

Six miles distant from Naples stands the celebrated mountain Vesuvius, whose eruptions have been so accurately recorded by the late Sir William Hamilton. Its perpendicular height is about 3700 feet, and the ascent, from the foot of the hill, is about two miles and a half. One side of the mountain is fertile and well cultivated, producing great plenty of vines; but the south and west sides are covered with cinders and ashes; while a sulphureous smoke constantly issues from the top, sometimes attended with most violent explosions of stones, the emission of great streams of lava, and all the other attendants of a most formidable volcano. The first of these eruptions took place in the year 79, and overwhelmed the two cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii.

Herculaneum and Pompeii, though buried in the depth of 24 feet under successive strata of lava, were accidentally discovered by some labourers in 1713, and have since proved a rich mine of antient curiosities. Of these the most valuable are manuscripts. Some of these have been unrolled; a work of Epicurus has been recovered, and there is reason to hope that the writings of many other antients, that have been long considered as lost, will, in a few years, be brought to light.

Sicily is separated from Naples by the Faro of Messina, a strait, which was deemed by the antients extremely dangerous on account of its rapid currents, the celebrated rock

View of the City of CATANIA, and Mount ETNA in Sicily.

Scylla and the whirlpool Charibdis. Sicily has a warm climate, healthful air, and remarkably fertile soil. The population of the island is estimated at 1, 300,000 souls. The government of Sicily is not entirely absolute, a share of the public authority being claimed by the parliament which consists of the nobles, the bishops, the abbots, and the deputies of 43 cities. The court of inquisition, which long subsisted in this island, had its power gradually curtailed, and was at length, in 1782, abolished by the royal mandate.

Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is situated near the extremity of a natural amphitheatre of high and rocky mountains, on one of the most pleasant and fertile spots in the world. Its inhabitants are about 150,000. Besides the cathedral, which is a large gothic structure, there are about 300 other churches, many of which are magnificent. In a vault belonging to a convent of Capuchins are deposited a great number of dead bodies, dressed in coarse garments, with [illegible] arms, and feet bare.

Mount Etna is 63 miles in circumference at the foot, and 10,954 feet in height. As a description of this mountain will give considerable information on the subject of volcanoes, we shall treat of it more at length than would otherwise consist with our plan. The journey from Catania to its summit has been lately described by three travellers, M. D'Orville, Mr. Brydone, and Sir William Hamilton. All these agree, that this single mountain affords an epitome of the different climates throughout the whole world; towards the foot it is very hot, farther up more temperate, and grows gradually more and more cold, the higher we ascend. At the very top it is perpetually covered with snow; from thence the whole island is supplied with that article, so necessary in a hot climate, and without which the natives suppose it could not be inhabited. On the north side of this snowy region, Mr. Brydone [illegible] that there are several small lakes which never thaw; and that the snow [illegible] on the north and east of the mountain, are accumulated to a vast depth. The quantity of salt contained in this mountain, he, with great probability, conjectures to be the reason for the preservation of its snows; for salt increases the coldness of snow to a surprising degree.

In the middle of the snowy region is the great crater, or mouth of Etna; from which, though contrary to the [illegible] travellers, we shall begin our particular account of this mountain. Sir [illegible] describes the crater as a little mountain, about a quarter of a mile perpendicular, and very steep, situated in the middle of a gently inclining plain, of about three miles in circumference. It is entirely formed of stones and ashes; and as Sir William Hamilton was informed by several people of Catania, had been thrown up 40 or 50 years before the time (1769) he visited mount Etna. Before the mountain was thrown up, there was only a prodigious large chasm, or gulph, in the middle of the above-mentioned plain; and it has been remarked that about once in 200 years the top of Etna falls in; which undoubtedly must be the case at certain periods, or the mountain would continually increase in height. As this little mountain, [illegible] emitting smoke from every pore, appeared solid and firm; Sir W. Hamilton and his companions went up to the very top. In the middle is a hollow about two miles and a half in circumference, according to Sir W. Hamilton; three miles and a half according to Mr. Brydone; and three or four according to M. D'Orville. The

inside is crusted over with salts and sulphur of different colours. It goes shelving down from the top, like an inverted cone; the depth, in Sir W. Hamilton's opinion, nearly corresponding to the height of the little mountain. From many places of this space issue volumes of sulphureous smoke, which, being much heavier than the circumambient air, instead of ascending in it, roll down the side of the mountain, till, coming to a more dense atmosphere, it shoots off horizontally, and forms a large tract in the air, according to the direction of the wind; which, happily for our travellers, carried it exactly to the side opposite to which they were placed. In the middle of this funnel is the tremendous and unfathomable gulph so much celebrated in all ages, both as the terror of this life, and the place of punishment in the next. From this gulph continually issue terrible and confused noises, which, in eruptions, are increased to such a degree, as to be heard at a prodigious distance. Its diameter is probably very different at different times; for Sir W. Hamilton observed, by the wind clearing away the smoke from time to time, that the inverted hollow cone was contracted almost to a point; while M. D'Orville was bolder: and accordingly he and his fellow-traveller, fastened to ropes, which two or three men held at a distance, for fear of accidents, descended as near as possible to the brink of the gulph; but the small flames and smoke which issued from it on every side, and a greenish sulphur, and pumice stones, quite black, which covered the margin, would not permit them to come so near as to have a full view. They only saw distinctly in the middle, a mass of matter, which rose, in the shape of a cone, to the height of above 60 feet, and which, towards the base, as far as their sight could reach, might be 600 or 800 feet. While they were observing this substance, some motion was perceived on the north side, opposite to that whereon they stood; and immediately the mountain began to send forth smoke and ashes. This eruption was preceded by a sensible increase of its internal roarings; which, however, did not continue; but after a moment's dilation, as if to give it vent, the volcano resumed its former tranquillity: but as it was by no means proper to make a long stay in such a place, our travellers immediately returned to their attendants.

On the Summit of mount Etna, Sir W. Hamilton observes, that he was sensible of a difficulty in respiration from the too great subtilty of the air, independent of what arose from the sulphureous smoke of the mountain. Mr. Brydone takes no notice of this; which probably arose from the air being in a more rarefied state at the time of Sir W. Hamilton's observation, than of Mr. Brydone's; the barometer, as observed by the former, standing at 18 inches and 10 lines, but the latter at 19 inches 6½ lines.

In these high regions there is generally a very violent wind, which, as all our travellers found it constantly blowing from the south, may possibly be commonly directed from that point. Here Mr. Brydone's thermometer fell to 27°.

The top of Etna being above the common region of vapours, the heavens appear with exceeding great splendour. Mr. Brydone and his company observed, as they ascended in the night, that the number of stars seemed to be infinitely increased, and the light of each of them appeared brighter than usual; the whiteness of the milky-way was like a pure flame which shot across the heavens; and, with the naked eye, they could observe a clus-

ters of stars that were invisible from below. Had Jupiter been visible, he is of opinion that some of his satellites might have been discovered with the naked eye, or at least with a very small pocket-glass. He likewise took notice of several of those meteors called falling stars; which appeared as much elevated as when viewed from the plain: a proof, according to Mr. Brydone, that 'these bodies move in regions much beyond the 'bounds that some philosophers have assigned to our atmosphere.'

To have a full and clear prospect from the summit of mount Etna, it is necessary to be there before sun-rise: as the vapours raised by the sun, in the day-time will obscure every object: accordingly our travellers took care to arrive there early enough; and all agree, that the beauty of the prospect from thence cannot be expressed. Here Mr. Brydone and Sir W. Hamilton had a view of Calabria in Italy, with the sea beyond it; the Lipari islands, and Stromboli, a volcano, at about 70 miles distance, appeared just under their feet, the whole island of Sicily, with its rivers, towns, harbours, &c. appeared distinct as if seen on a map. Massa, a Sicilian author, affirms, that the African coast, as well as that of Naples, with many of its islands, have been discovered from the top of Etna. The visible horizon here is not less than 8 or 900 miles in diameter. The pyramidal shadow of the mountain reaches across the whole island, and far into the sea on the other side, forming a visible tract in the air, which, as the sun rises above the horizon, is shortened, and at last confined to the neighbourhood of Etna. The most beautiful part of the scene, however, in Mr. Brydone's opinion, is the mountain itself, the island of Sicily, and the numerous islands lying round it. These last seem to be close to the skirts of Etna; the distances appearing reduced to nothing.

This mountain is divided into three zones, which might, properly enough, be distinguished by the names of torrid, temperate, and frigid: they are, however, known by the names of Piedmontese, or regione culta, the cultivated or fertile region; the sylvosa, woody, or temperate zone; and the regione deserta, the frigid or desert zone, or region. All these are plainly distinguished from the summit. The regione deserta is marked out by a circle of snow and ice, which extends on all sides to the distance of about eight miles, beginning at the foot of the crater. Greatest part of this region is smooth and even. This is immediately succeeded by the sylvosa, or woody region; which forms a circle of the most beautiful green, surrounding the mountain on all sides. This region is variegated with a vast number of mountains of a conical form, thrown up by Etna in those eruptions which burst out from its sides. Sir W. Hamilton counted 44 on the Catania side, each having its crater, many with large trees flourishing both within and without the crater. All these, except a few of late date, have acquired a wonderful degree of fertility. The circumference of this zone, or great circle, according to Recupero, is not less than 70 or 80 miles. It is every where succeeded by the regione culta; which is much broader than the rest, and extends on all sides to the foot of the mountain. Here terrible devastations are sometimes committed by the eruptions; and the whole region is likewise full of conical mountains thrown up by them. This region is bounded by the sea to the south and south-east; and on all sides by the river Semetus and Alcantera, which form the boundaries of mount Etna.

About a mile below the foot of the great crater are found the ruins of an antient structure, called Il Torre del Filosofo; by some supposed to have been built by the philosopher Empedocles, who took up his habitation here, the better to study the nature of mount Etna. By others they are supposed to be the ruins of a temple of Vulcan. They are of brick, and seem to have been ornamented with marble. Somewhere in this region also, M. D'Orville found a great oblong block of polished marble, eight or ten feet high, and three or four thick; though how it came there was quite unaccountable to him. From M. D'Orville's and Mr. Brydone's accounts, we must reckon this part of the mountain pretty steep: but Sir W. Hamilton says, that the ascent was so gradual, as not to be the least fatiguing; and had it not been for the snows, they might have rode on their mules to the very foot of the crater.

The woody region descends eight or nine miles below the regione deserta, but differs greatly in the temperature of its climate. Sir W. Hamilton observed a gradual decrease of the vegetation as he advanced; the under part being covered with large timber trees, which grew gradually less as he approached the third region, at last they degenerated into the small plants of the northern climates. He also observed quantities of juniper and tansey; and was informed by his guide, that later in the season (he visited Etna in June, 1769) there are a great many curious plants, and in some places rhubarb and saffron in great plenty.

This region is extolled by Mr. Brydone as one of the most delightful spots on earth. He lodged for a night in a large cave, near the middle, formed by one of the most antient lavas. It is called La Spelonca del Capriole, or the goat's cavern; because it is frequented by those animals, which take refuge there in bad weather. Here his rest was disturbed by a mountain thrown up in the eruption 1766. It discharged great quantities of smoke, and made several explosions, like heavy cannon fired at a distance; but they could observe no appearance of fire.

This gentleman likewise visited the eastern side of the regione sylvosa, intending to have ascended that way to the summit, and descended again on the south side to Catania, but found it impracticable; though what the insurmountable difficulties were, he does not mention. On this side part of the woody region was destroyed in 1755, by an immense torrent of boiling water, which issued from the great crater. Its traces were still very visible, about a mile and a half broad, and in some places more. The soil was then only beginning to recover its vegetative power, which it seems this torrent had destroyed for 14 years.

Near this place are some beautiful woods of cork, and evergreen oak, growing absolutely out of the lava, the soil having hardly filled the crevices; and not far off, our traveller observed seven little mountains, that seemed to have been formed by a late eruption. Each of these had a regular cup, or crater on the top; and in some, the middle gulph, or voragine, as the Sicilians call it, was still open. Into these gulphs Mr. Brydone tumbled down stones, and heard the noise for a long time after. All the fields round, to a considerable distance, were covered with large burnt stones discharged from these little volcanoes.

The woody region, especially the east side, called Carpinetto, abounds with very large chesnut trees, the most remarkable of which has been called from its size, Castagno de Cento Cavilli, or chesnut tree of an hundred horse. Mr. Brydone was greatly disappointed at the sight of this tree, as it is only a bush of five large ones, growing together, but his guides assured him that all these five were once united into one stem; and Signior Recupero told him that he himself had been at the expence of carrying up peasants to dig round this bush of trees, and found all the stems united below ground in one root. The circumference, as measured by Messrs. Brydone and Glover, who accompanied him, amounted to 204 feet. Another of these, about a mile and a half higher on the mountain, is called Castagna del Galea; it rises from one solid stem to a considerable height; after which it branches out, and is a much finer object than the other: this was measured two feet above the ground, and found to be 76 feet in circumference. A third called Castagne del Nave, is pretty nearly of the same size; and Massa, one of the most esteemed Sicilian authors, affirms that he has seen solid oaks there upwards of 40 feet round. All these grow on a thick rich soil, which seems originally to have been formed of ashes thrown out by the mountain. Here the barometer stood at 26 inches five lines and a half; indicating an elevation of near 4000 feet.

The Piedmontese district is covered with towns, villages, monasteries, &c. and is well peopled, notwithstanding the danger of such a situation: but the fertility of the soil tempts people to inhabit that country; and their superstitious confidence in their saints, with the propensity mankind have to despise danger which they do not see, render them as secure there as in any other place. Here, Sir W. Hamilton observes, they keep their vines low, contrary to the custom of those who inhabit mount Vesuvius; and they produce a stronger wine, but not in such abundance; here also many terrible eruptions have burst forth; paticularly one in 1669. At the foot of the mountain raised by that eruption, is a hole, through which Sir W. Hamilton descended, by means of a rope, into several subterraneous caverns, branching out and extending much farther than he chose to venture, the cold there being excessive, and a violent wind extinguishing some of the torches. Many other caverns are known in this and the other regions of Etna: particularly one near this place called La Spelonca della Plomba, (from the wild pigeons building their nests there.) Here Mr. Brydone was told that some people had lost their senses, from having advanced too far, imagining they saw devils and damned spirits. Some of these caverns are made use of as magazines for snow; which they are adapted for, on account of the extreme cold. These are, with great probability, supposed by Sir W. Hamilton, to be the hollows made by the issuing of the lava in eruptions.

In this region the river Acis, so much celebrated by the poets, in the fable of Acis and Galatea, takes its rise. It bursts out of the earth at once in a large stream, runs with great rapidity, and about a mile from its source throws itself into the sea. Its water is remarkably clear; and so extremely cold, that it is reckoned dangerous to drink it: it is said, however, to have a poisonous quality from being impregnated with vitriol; in consequence of which, cattle have been killed by it. It never freezes, but is said often to contract a greater degree of cold than ice.

Having thus given an account of this mountain in its quiet and peaceable state, we must now describe the appearance it puts on during the time of an eruption, when it spreads destruction for many miles round, and is capable of striking the boldest with terror.

Sir W. Hamilton, who has examined both Vesuvius and Etna in a very accurate manner, never had an opportunity of seeing an eruption of the latter; but as he is of opinion that the two volcanoes agree perfectly in all respects, only that the latter is on a much larger scale than the former, we hope it will not be unacceptable to our readers to give an account of some of the general appearances of Vesuvius, when in a state of eruption, the better to help their ideas concerning Etna.

It has been already observed, that a smoke constantly issues from the top of Etna, and that its internal noises never cease. The case is the same with Vesuvius: and Sir W. Hamilton observed, that in bad weather the smoke was more considerable, as well as the noises much louder, than when it was fair; so that in bad weather he had frequently heard the inward explosions of the mountain at Naples, six miles distant from Vesuvius. He also observed the smoke that issued from the mountain in bad weather to be very white, moist, and not near so offensive as the sulphureous steams from various cracks in the side of the mountain.

The first symptom of an approaching eruption is an increase of the smoke in fair weather: after some time, a puff of black smoke is frequently seen to shoot up in the midst of the white to a considerable height. These puffs are attended with considerable explosions: for while Vesuvius was in this state, Sir W. Hamilton went up to its top; he was examining this phenomenon, when suddenly a violent report was heard, a column of black smoke shot up with violence, and was followed by a reddish flame. Immediately a shower of stones fell; upon which he thought proper to retire. Phenomena of this kind, in all probability, precede the eruptions of Etna in a much greater degree. The smoke at length appears wholly black in the day time, and in the night has the appearance of flame; showers of ashes are sent forth, earthquakes are produced, the mountain discharges volleys of red-hot stones to a great height in the air. The force by which these stones are projected, as well as their magnitudes, seem to be in proportion to the bulk of the mountain. Signior Recupero assured Mr. Brydone, that he had seen immensely large ones thrown perpendicularly upwards to the height of 7000 feet, as he calculated from the time they took to arrive at the earth, after beginning to descend from their greatest elevation. The largest stone or rather rock, that was ever known to be emitted by Vesuvius, was 12 feet long and 45 in circumference. This was thrown a quarter of a mile; but much larger have been thrown out by mount Etna, almost in the proportion in which the latter exceeds Vesuvius in bulk. Along with these terrible symptoms, the smoke that issues from the crater is sometimes in a highly electrified state. In this case the small ashes which are continually emitted from the crater, are attracted by the smoke, and rise with it to a great height, forming a vast black, and, to appearance dense column; from this column continual flashes of forked or zig-zag lightning issue, sometimes attended with thunder, and sometimes not, but equally powerful with ordinary

lightning. This phenomenon was observed by Sir W. Hamilton in the smoke of Vesuvius, and has also been taken notice of in that of Etna; and where this electrified smoke hath spread over a tract of land, much mischief hath been done by the lightning proceeding from it.

When these dreadful appearances have continued sometimes four or five months, the lava begins to make its appearance. This is a stream of melted mineral matters, which, in Vesuvius, commonly boils over the top, but very seldom does so in Etna; owing to the great weight of the lava, which, long before it can be raised to the vast height of mount Etna, bursts out through some weak place in its side. Upon the appearance of the lava, the violent eruptions of the mountain generally, though not always, cease; for if this burning matter gets no sufficient vent, the commotions increase to a prodigious degree. In the night-time the lava appears like a stream of fire, accompanied with flame; but in the day time it has no such appearance; its progress is marked by a white smoke, which, by the reflection of the red-hot matter in the night, assumes the appearance of flame.

All the above-mentioned symptoms preceded the great eruption of Etna in 1669. For several months before the lava broke forth, the old mouth, or great crater, on the summit, was observed to send forth great quantities of smoke and flame; the top had fallen in, so that the mountain was much lowered; the islands, also, of Volcan and Stromboli, two volcanoes to the westward of Sicily, were observed to rage more than usual. Eighteen days before the eruption, the sky was very thick and dark, with thunder, lightning, frequent concussions of the earth, and dreadful subterraneous bellowings. On the 11th of March, sometime before the lava got vent, a rent was opened in the mountain, twelve miles in length, into which, when stones were thrown down, they could not be heard to strike the bottom. Burning rocks, 60 palms (15 of our feet) in length were thrown to the distance of a mile; others of a lesser size were carried three miles off; the internal noises of the mountain were exceedingly dreadful, and the thunder and lightning from the smoke scarce less terrible than they. When the lava at last got vent, it burst out of a vineyard, 20 miles below the crater, and sprung up into the air to a considerable height. Here it formed a mountain of stones and ashes, not less as Sir W. Hamilton conjectures, than half a mile perpendicular in height, and three miles in circumference. For 54 days neither sun nor stars had appeared: but soon after the lava got vent, the mountain became very quiet. The terrible effects of this fiery stream may be imagined from its amazing extent, being, as Sir W. Hamilton observes, no less than 14 miles long, and, in some places, six in breadth. In its course it destroyed the habitations of near 30,000 persons; and meeting with a lake four miles in compass, it not only filled it up, though several fathom deep, but made a mountain in the place of it. Having reached Catania, it destroyed part of its walls, and ran for a considerable length into the sea, forming a safe and beautiful harbour; which, however, was soon filled up by a fresh torrent of the same inflamed matter.

It is is not easy for those who have never been present at those terrible operations of nature, to represent to their minds the horror which must attend the breaking forth of

the lava; for though the giving vent to this burning matter generally produces a cessation of the violent efforts of the internal fire, yet, at the very instant of its explosion, scarce any thing can be conceived so dreadful.

When the lava first issues, it appears very fluid, and runs with the rapidity of a swift river; but even then it surprisingly resists the impression of solid bodies: for Sir W. Hamilton could not pierce that of Vesuvius with a stick driven against it with all his force; nor did the largest stone he was able to throw upon it sink, but made a slight impression, and then floated along. This happened almost at the very mouth, when the lava appeared liquid as water, and when it was running with a rapidity equal to the river Severn at the passage near Bristol. A description of the lava issuing from mount Etna in 1669, was sent to the court of England by lord Winchelsea, who, at that time, happened to be at Catania, in his way home from an embassy at Constantinople. His account is not now to be procured; but Sir W. Hamilton found a copy in Sicily, and hath given an extract, part of which follows. "When it was night, I went upon two towers in divers places; and could plainly see, at 10 miles distance, as we judged, the fire begin to run from the mountains in a direct line, the flame to ascend as high, and as big as one of the great steeples in your majesty's kingdoms, and to throw up great stones into the air: I could discern the river of fire to descend the mountain, of a terrible fiery or red colour, and stones of a paler red to swim thereon, and to be some as big as an ordinary table. We should see this fire to move in several other places, and all the country covered with fire, ascending with great flames in many places, smoking like to a violent furnace of iron melted, making a noise with the great pieces that fell, especially those that fell into the sea. A cavalier of Malta, who lives there, and attended me, told me, that the river was as liquid, where it issues out of the mountain, as water, and came out like a torrent with great violence, and is five or six fathoms deep, and as broad, and that no stones sink therein."

The account given in the Philosophical Transactions is to the same purpose. We are there told, that the lava is "nothing else than divers kind of metals and minerals, rendered liquid by the fierceness of the fire in the bowels of the earth, boiling up and gushing forth as the water doth at the head of some great river; and having run in a full body for a stone's cast or more, began to crust or curdle, becoming, when cold, those hard, porous stones, which the people call Sciarri." Those, though cold in comparison of what first issues from the mountain, yet retained so much heat as to resemble huge cakes of sea-coal, strongly ignited, and came tumbling over one another, bearing down or burning whatever was in their way. In this manner the lava proceeded slowly on till it came to the sea, when a most extraordinary conflict ensued betwixt the two adverse elements. The noise was vastly more dreadful than the loudest thunder, being heard through the whole country to an immense distance; the water seemed to retire and diminish before the lava, while clouds of vapour darkened the sun. The whole fish on the coast were destroyed, the colour of the sea itself was changed, and the transparency of its waters lost for many months.

While this lava was issuing in such prodigious quantity, the merchants, whose account

recorded in the Philosophical Transactions, attempted to go up to the mouth itself; but durst not come nearer than a furlong, lest they should have been overwhelmed by a vast pillar of ashes, which, to their apprehension, exceeded twice the bigness of St. Paul's steeple in London, and went up into the air to a far greater height; at the mouth itself was a continual noise, like the beating of great waves of the sea against rocks, or like distant thunder, which sometimes was so violent as to be heard 60 miles, or even 100 miles off; to which distance, also, part of the ashes were carried. Some time after, having gone up, they found the mouth, from which this terrible deluge issued, to be only a hole 10 feet diameter. This is also confirmed by Mr. Brydone; and is probably the same through which Sir W. Hamilton descended into the subterranean caverns already mentioned.

The island of Corsica appears to be possessed of few natural advantages. Its air is unwholesome, and its soil in general barren. The valleys, however, produce some wheat, and they yield olives, figs, grapes, almonds, and chesnuts. Here are the mines of iron; spirited horses; and on the coast are abundance of fish and coral. Its chief towns are Bastia and Calvi.

Sardinia is about 140 miles in length and 70 in breadth, and contains 420,000 inhabitants. The revenue arises chiefly from a duty upon salt, and is barely sufficient to defray the expences of government; but it certainly might be considerably augmented, as the soil produces wine, corn, and oil, in abundance. Most of the salt that is exported is taken by the Danes and Swedes; the English formerly took great quantities for Newfoundland, but having found it more convenient to procure it from Spain or Portugal, they now take little or none. A profitable tunny fishery is carried on at the south-west part of the island, but it is monopolized by the duke de St. Pierre, and a few more people, who happened to be proprietors to the adjoining land. Wild boars abound in hilly parts of the island, and here are some few deer, not so large as those in Britain, but in colour and make exactly the same. Beeves and sheep are also common, as well as horses.

The feudal system still subsists in a limited degree, and titles go with their estates, so that the purchaser of the latter inherits the former. The regular troops seldom exceed 2000 men; but the militia amount to near 26,000, of whom 11,000 are cavalry. Their horses are small but uncommonly active. In a charge we should beat them; but on a march they would be superior to us. The country people are generally armed; but notwithstanding their having been so long under the Spanish and Italian government, assassinations are by no means frequent: and yet by the laws of their country, if a man stabs another without premeditated malice, within four hours after quarrelling with him, he is not liable to be hanged. On the other hand, the church affords no protection to the guilty. The Sardinians are not at all bigoted; and, next to the Spaniards, the English are their favourites. The whole island is subject to the duke of Savoy, who enjoys the title of king of Sardinia.

There is in this island a pleasing variety of hills and valleys, and the soil is generally fruitful, but the inhabitants are a slothful generation, and cultivate but a little part of

it. On the coast there is a fishery of anchovies and coral, of which they send large quantities to Genoa and Leghorn. This island is divided into two parts, the one called Capo di Cagliari lies to the south; and the other Capo di Logery, which is seated to the north. The principal towns are Cagliari the capital, Oristagno, and Sassari.

Cagliari is an antient, large, and rich town, with a good harbour.

Malta was formerly reckoned to belong to Africa, but is now considered as a port of Europe. It was antiently a barren rock, but has been rendered fertile by large quantities of soil brought from Africa. It produces but little corn, but an abundance of lemons, citrons, and wine. Its inhabitants are said to be about 90,000, who speak Italian and Arabic. The knights of Malta were its former governors, but it is now in possession of the English.

Its capital, of the same name, is divided into three parts, which are so many peninsulas, consisting of solid rocks, and separated from each other by channels, capable of receiving large fleets. The streets are spacious, and the houses built with white stone. It is seated on the sea side, facing Sicily.

CHAPTER II.

ROME.----*From the foundation of the city to the accession of Augustus, including the antient history of France, Spain, and Italy.*

THE origin of Rome is usually derived from the destruction of Troy, about 1184 years before Christ. Æneas, after contributing his utmost to the defence of his native city, found means to escape the carnage that attended its ruin; embarked with a considerable number of exiles, coasted the shores of Epirus, Sicily, and Italy, and, at length, landed near the mouth of the Tiber, in the territories of Latinus king of the Latins. The resistance of the original inhabitants was speedily terminated by a perpetual league with the Trojan adventurers, whom they admitted into the number of their fellow citizens, and conferred on them every privilege of which they were themselves possessed.

The western banks of the Tiber were inhabited by the Hetrurians, a people of whom little is known, though they have been a favourite object of antiquarian research. They consisted of 12 tribes; the Veientes, the Clusini, the Perusini, the Cortonenses, the Arretini, the Vetuloni, the Volaterrani, the Rusellani, the Volscinii, the Tarquinii, the Falisci, and Cæretani. Each of these states had an independent government, which was usually that of a Lucumon or king, and possessed the power of making separate peace or war; but such affairs as related to the whole confederacy were debated in a general assembly, in which one of the Lucumons presided. They are said to have been the offspring of a Lydian colony, which settled in Italy about 1000 years before the destruction of Troy, and to have used, in that early age, a rude kind of alphabet, resembling the Pelasgic. In after times they were distinguished for their superstitious attachment to divination, their skill in architecture and other arts, the success of their arms, and the extent of their dominions. Before they were oppressed by the Roman arms on one side, and the Gallic on the other, they occupied all the country from the Tiber to the Po, and from the Po to the Alps, unless that small portion of the Adriatic sea-coast which was claimed by the Veneti.

Though thus prosperous themselves, they could not behold without jealousy the prosperity of their neighbours. Æneas, having married the daughter of Latinus, succeeded to his kingdom, subdued the Rutuli, and laid the foundation of Lavinium, was obliged to oppose the incursions of the Hetrurians, and lost his life in the field. The war, however, continued long, and was attended with various success, till it was at length terminated by an equal peace, which assigned the Tiber as the common boundary of the belligerent powers. Alba was soon after built, and the affairs of the Latins prospered under 15 successive princes, descendants of the Trojan hero.

The 13th successor of Æneas was Procas, who left two sons, Numitor and Amulius. Numitor had a double claim to the crown, being not only the eldest brother but appointed

successor by his father; he was, nevertheless, deposed by Amulius, his son Egistheus was murdered, and his daughter Rhea Sylvia condemned to the perpetual virginity of the vestal virgins. The precautions of Amulius did not prove successful. Rhea Sylvia became the mother of two sons, who were attributed to Mars. The infants were cast into the Tiber, but being left by the river on its bank, were found by Faustulus, the king's shepherd, named by him Remus and Romulus, and brought up among the herdsmen. After living 18 years in obscurity, they discovered their true history, slew their unnatural uncle, and replaced Numitor in the government. Affairs being thus settled at Alba, they determined to erect the city on a spot where they had been exposed. Prosperity soon separated those whom adversity had united; they contended for the honour of marking out the spot where the foundations should be laid; and of conferring a name on the infant colony: and though these disputes were decided by augury, the animosity did not entirely subside till the death of Remus, who was murdered, it is supposed, by the connivance of his brother. Rome, thus founded, about 750 years before the Christian era, was, at first, composed of a thousand huts, scattered irregularly on mount Palatine.

Romulus was now elected king by his followers, and proceeded to settle the constitution of his country. He assumed an habit of distinction, and appointed 12 lictors to attend him as guards, each carrying an axe enclosed in a faggot of rods.

He formed a senate consisting of 100 persons, chosen from among the patricians; and a guard of 300 young men called celeres, who attended the king, and fought either on foot or on horseback as occasion required. The king's office at home was to take care of religious affairs; to be the guardian of laws and customs; to decide the weightier causes between man and man, referring those of smaller moment to the senate; to call together the senators, and assemble the people, first delivering his own opinion concerning the affair he proposed, and then ratifying by his consent what was agreed on by the majority. Abroad and in time of war, he was to command the army with absolute authority, and to take care of the public money. The senate were not only to be judges in matters of small importance, but to debate and resolve upon such public affairs as the king proposed, and to determine them by a plurality of voices. The people were allowed to create magistrates, enact laws, and resolve upon any war which the king proposed; but in all these things the consent of the senate was necessary.

He farther divided the people into patricians and plebeians. To the former of these, who were the sons of senators, he confined all dignities, civil, military, and sacerdotal. But, to prevent the seditions which such a distinction might produce, through the pride of the higher order, and the envy of the lower, he endeavoured to engage them to one another by reciprocal ties and obligations. Every plebeian was allowed to choose, out of the body of the patricians, a protector, who should be obliged to assist him with his interest and substance, and to defend him from oppression. These protectors were called patrons; the protected, clients. It was the duty of the patron to draw up the contracts of the clients, to extricate them out of their difficulties and perplexities, and to guard their ignorance against the artfulness of the crafty. On the other hand, if the patron was poor, his clients were obliged to contribute to the portions of his daughters,

the payment of his debts, and the ransom of him and his children, if they happened to be taken in war. The client and patron could neither abuse nor declare witness against each other; and if either of them was convicted of having violated this law, the crime was equal to that of treason, and any one might with impunity, slay the offender, as a victim devoted to Pluto and the infernal gods. For more than 600 years we find no dissension nor jealousies between the patrons and their clients, not even in the times of the republic, when the people frequently mutinied against the great and powerful.

Another division of the inhabitants was into three tribes, each of which was subdivided into 10 curiæ. Out of each of these curiæ were chosen 10 young men, who composed a body of 300 horse, that were attached to the person of the king, and were denominated celeres, equites, or knights. They were commanded by a tribune, who was reckoned the second person in the kingdom.

In forming the religion for his people he consulted the prejudices both of the Trojans and Aborignies, by adopting the worship of the Phrygian as well as of the Italian deities. He also opened an asylum for vagabonds of every description, under the protection of a divinity of his own invention, the Asylean god. The inhabitants of the infant city having but few of them wives, and their neighbours refusing to contract any affinity with them, they endeavoured to remove this inconvenience by seizing such females as were present at a public festival. This transaction occasioned a war of considerable duration and extent. The Antemnates, Coeninenses, and Crustumini were easily conquered, their cities were razed, and they removed to Rome; the war with the Sabines lasted longer, but was at length terminated by an agreement that the two nations should henceforth become one, in equal subjection to two kings, Romulus the Roman, and Tatius the Sabine. This convention either did not concern the whole Sabine nation, or was not observed after the death of Numa. Tatius was murdered soon after by the Lavinians, and Romulus disappeared, not without the suspicion of murder, in the 37th year of his reign.

The four succeeding kings of Rome increased her power without altering her constitution. Numa was a Sabine philosopher, solitary and superstitious, but not destitute of information on subjects natural and moral. He laboured to civilize the people by the influences of religious observances, and to obliterate the distinction between the Romans and Sabines, by causing the artificers of the different trades to form themselves into associated communities, without regard to the different nations to which individuals might belong. Tullus Hostilius was a fierce and martial prince, who levelled Alba with the ground, and removed its inhabitants to Rome. Ancus Martius combined, in a certain degree, the opposite characters of the two preceding princes. Like Numa he studied the arts of peace, promoted agriculture, and endeavoured to repress the predatory disposition of his people; but at the same time avenged their injuries, and took several little cities belonging to the Latins. He also built the port of Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber. Tarquinius Priscus, who was a stranger of Grecian extraction, defeated the 12 tribes of the Hetrurians, and obliged them to acknowledge his superiority, by presenting

him with a crown of gold, a sceptre of ivory, a purple robe, and other ensigns of regal dignity.

He was succeeded by Servius Tullus, who effected the first great change in the Roman constitution. The public supplies had hitherto been raised upon the people at so much a-head, without any distinction of rich or poor; whence it likewise followed, that when levies were made for the war, the rich and poor were equally obliged to take the field, according to the order of their tribe; and as they all served at their own expence, the poorer sort could hardly bear the charges of a campaign. Besides as the most indigent of the people saw themselves burdened with the same taxes as the rich, they pretended to an equal authority in the comitia: so that the election of kings and magistrates, the making of peace or war, and the judging of criminals, were given up into the hands of a populace, who were easily corrupted, and had nothing to lose. Servius formed a project to remedy these evils, and put it in execution, by enacting a law enjoining all the Roman citizens to bring in an account in writing, of their own names and ages, and of those of their fathers, wives, and their children. By the same law, all heads of families were commanded to deliver in, upon oath, a just estimate of their effects, and to add to it the places of their abode, whether in town or country. Whoever did not bring in an account of his effects was to be deprived of his estate, to be beat with rods, and publicly sold for a slave. Servius, from these particular accounts, which might be pretty well relied on, undertook to ease the poor by burdening the rich, and at the same time to please the latter by increasing their power.

To this end he divided the Roman people into six classes: the first consisted of those whose estates and effects amounted to the value of 10,000 drachmæ, or 100,000 asses of brass; the first way of computing being used by the Greeks, and the latter by the Latins. This class was subdivided into 80 centuries, or companies of foot. To these Servius joined 18 centuries of Roman knights, who fought on horseback; and appointed this considerable body of horsemen to be at the head of the first class, because the estates of these knights, without all doubt, exceeded the sum necessary to be admitted into it. However, the public supplied them with horses; for which a tax was laid upon widows, who were exempt from all other tributes. This first class, including infantry and cavalry, consisted of 98 centuries. The second class comprehended those whose estates were valued at 5700 dramchæ, or 75,000 asses of brass. It was subdivided into 20 centuries, all foot. To these were added two centuries of carpenters, smiths, and other artificers. In the third class were those who were esteemed worth 5000 drachmæ, or 50,000 asses. This class was subdivided into 20 centuries. The fourth class was of those whose effects were rated at the value of 500 drachmæ, or 25,000 asses, and was divided into 20 centuries; to which were added two other centuries of trumpets and blowers of the horn, who supplied the whole army with this martial music. The fifth class included those only whose substance did not amount to more than 1250 drachmæ, or 12,500 asses; and this class was divided into 30 centuries. The sixth class comprehended all those who were not worth so much as the fifth class, they exceeded in number any other class, but nevertheless were reckoned but as one century.

The king drew from these regulations all the advantages he had expected. Levies for the army were no longer raised by the tribes, nor were taxes laid at so much a-head as formerly, but all was levied by centuries. When for instance an army of 20,000 men, or a large supply of money was wanted for the war, each century furnished its quota both of men and money: so that the first class, which contained more centuries, though fewer men, than all the others together, furnished more men and more money for the public service than the whole Romon state besides. And by this means the Roman armies consisted, for the most part, of the rich citizens of Rome; who, as they had lands and effects to defend, fought with more resolution, while their riches enabled them to bear the expence of a campaign. As it was but just the king should make the first class amends for the weight laid on it, he gave it almost the whole authority in public affairs; changing the comitia by curiæ, in which every man gave his vote, into comitia by centuries, in which the majority was not reckoned by single persons, but by centuries, how few-soever there might be in a century. Hence the first class, which contained more centuries than the other five taken together, had every thing at its disposal. The votes of this class were first taken; and if the 98 centuries happened to agree, or only 97 of them, the affair was determined; because these made the majority of the 193 centuries which composed the six classes. If they disagreed, then the second, the third, and the other classes in their order, were called to vote, though there was very seldom any occasion to go so low as the fourth class for a majority of votes: so that, by this good order, Servius brought the affairs of the state to be determined by the judgment of the most considerable citizens, who are supposed to have understood the public interest much better than the blind multitude, liable to be imposed upon, and easily corrupted.

And now the people being thus divided into several orders, according to the census or valuation of their estates, Servius resolved to solemnize this prudent regulation by some public act of religion, that it might be the more respected and the more lasting. Accordingly all the citizens were commanded to appear on a day appointed, in the Campus Martius, which was a large plain lying between the city and the Tiber, formerly consecrated by Romulus to the god Mars. Here the centories, being drawn up in battalia, a solemn lustration or expiatory sacrifice was performed, in the name of all the people. The sacrifice consisted of a sow, a sheep, and a bull, whence it took the name of suovetaurilia. The whole ceremony was called Lustrum. Servius considering, that in the space of five years there might be such alterations in the fortunes of private persons as to entitle some to be raised to an higher class, and reduce others to a lower, enjoined that the census should be renewed every five years. As the census was usually closed by the lustrum, the Romans henceforth began to compute time by lustrums, each lustrum containing the space of five years. However the lustrums were not always regularly observed but often put off, though the census had been made in the fifth year. Some writers are of opinion, that Servius, at this time, coined the first money that ever appeared at Rome; and add, that the circumstances of the lustrum probably led him to stamp the figures of the animals there slain, on pieces of brass of a certain weight.

Tarquinius, the next king of Rome, was the grandson of the former Tarquin, and son-

in-law of Servius, whom he murdered in order to usurp the crown. His reign was one continued series of violence and oppression, but tended, in various instances, to increase the grandeur of the Roman name. He erected that temple of Jupiter which was called the capitol; completed the common sewers which carried off the silt of Rome, by subterraneous passages, into the Tiber; established a superiority over the Latins, and gained possession of Gabii by treachery. That which occasioned his downfall was the violence which his son Sextus offered to Lucretia, a chaste Roman lady, who stabbed herself rather than survive the loss of her virtue. As she performed that dreadful act in the presence of her relations, having previously bound them to avenge her quarrel, they determined to gratify their resentment by exciting an insurrection among the people and expelling Tarquin and his guilty family from Rome.

The form of government was now changed. The regal authority, which had continued 244 years, was now succeeded by that of two consuls, who were to divide the power between them, and hold it for no longer space than one year. The consuls wore white robes, sat in ivory chairs, and had 12 lictors to attend them. The vacancies in the senate were filled up, so as to complete the number of 300 senators,* to which number it had been increased in consequence of the great additions which had been made to the inhabitants of Rome.

The republic was, in its infancy, attacked by very formidable enemies. Secret conspiracies were excited within, while the Volsci, the Tarquinienses, and Porsenna, king of the Hetrurians, took up arms openly to assert the cause of the exiled family. These difficulties were, however, attended with this good effect, that they deferred those disputes, which, after the death of Tarquin, were maintained with great animosity between the different orders of the state. At this time Rome contained 150,000 men capable of contributing to its defence, and its dominions extended about 15 miles from the capitol.

The Romans were no sooner freed from those dangerous wars than the senate, who were at the head of the patricians, chose to the consulate one Appius Claudius, who violently opposed the pretensions of the plebeians; but gave him, for his colleague, one Servilius, who was of a quite contrary opinion and disposition. The consequence of this was that the consuls disagreed; the senate did not know what to determine, and the people were ready to revolt. In the midst of these disturbances, an army of the Volsci advanced towards Rome; the people refused to serve; and had not Servilius procured some troops, who served out of a personal affection to himself, the city would have been in great danger.

But though the Volsci were for this time driven back, they had no intention of dropping their designs; they engaged in an alliance with them the Hermici and Sabines. In the mean time the disputes at Rome continued with as much violence as ever. Nay, though they were expressly told that the Volscian army was on its way to besiege the city, the plebeians absolutely refused to march against them; saying, that it was the same thing whether they were chained by their own countrymen or by the enemy. In this extremity Servilius promised that when the enemy were repulsed, the senate would remit all the debts of the plebeians. This having engaged them to serve, the consul marched out

at their head, defeated the enemy in a pitched battle, and took their capital, giving it up to be plundered by his soldiers, without reserving any part for the public treasury.

Whatever might have been the reasons of Servilius for this step, it furnished Appius with a pretence for refusing him a triumph as a man of a seditious disposition, who aimed at popularity by an excessive indulgence and profuseness to his soldiers. Servilius, incensed at this injustice, and encouraged by the acclamations of the people, decreed himself a triumph in spite of Appius and the senate. After this he marched against the Aurunci, who had entered Latium; and, in conjunction with Posthumius Regillens, he utterly defeated them, and obliged them to retire into their own country. But neither the services of the general nor his soldiers could mollify the senate and patrician party. Appius even doubled the severity of his judgments, and imprisoned all those debtors who had been set at liberty during the war. The prisoners cried for relief to Servilius; but he could not obtain the accomplishments of those promises which the senate never had meant to perform; neither did he choose to quarrel openly with the whole patrician body; so that, striving to preserve the friendship of both parties, he incurred the hatred of the one and the contempt of the other. Perceiving also that he had lost all his interest with the plebeians, he joined with the patricians against them; but the plebeians, rushing tumultuously into the forum, made such a noise that no sentence pronounced by the judges could be heard, and the utmost confusion prevailed through the whole city. Several proposals were made to accomodate matters; but through the obstinacy of Appius and the majority of the senators they all came to nothing. In the mean time it was necessary to raise an army against the Sabines, who had invaded the territories of the republic; but the people refused to serve. Manius Valerius, however, brother to the celebrated Poplicola, once more prevailed upon them to march out against the common enemy; having previously obtained assurances from the senate that their grievances should be redressed. But no sooner had victory declared in favour of the Romans, than the senate apprehending that the soldiers at their return would challenge Valerius, who had been nominated a dictator, for the performance of their promises, desired him and the two consuls to detain them still in the field, under pretence that the war was not quite finished. The consuls obeyed; but the dictator, whose authority did not depend on the senate, disbanded his army, and declared his soldiers free from the oath which they had taken; and, as a farther proof of his attachment to the plebeians, he chose out of that order 400, whom he invested with the dignity of knights. After this he claimed the accomplishment of the promises made by the senate: but instead of performing them, he had the mortification to hear himself loaded with reproaches: on which he resigned his office as dictator, and acquainted the people with his inability to fulfil his engagements to them. No sooner were these transactions known in the army, than the soldiers, to a man, deserted the consuls and other officers, and retired to a hill, called afterwards Mons Sacer, three miles from Rome, where they continued to observe an exact discipline, offering no sort of violence whatever. The senate, after taking proper measures for the defence of the city, sent a deputation to the malcontents; but it was answered with contempt. In short, all things tended to a civil

war, when at last matters were compromised by the institution of tribunes of the people, who had power to prevent the passing of any law that might be prejudicial to the people, and whose persons were declared sacred, insomuch that whoever offered the least violence to the person of a tribune, was declared accursed, his effects were to be consecrated to Ceres, and he himself might be killed with impunity; and all the Romans were to engage themselves, in their own name and that of their posterity, never to repeal this law. The people, after these regulations, erected an altar to Jupiter the Terrible on the top of the hill where their camp had stood; and when they had offered sacrifices to the god, and consecrated the place of their retreat, they returned to Rome, led by their new magistrates and the deputies of the senate.

Thus the Roman constitution, which had originally been monarchic, and from thence had passed into an aristocracy, began now to verge towards a democracy. The tribunes, immediately after their election, obtained permission from the senate to elect two persons as their ministers or assistants, who should ease them a little in the great multiplicity of their affairs. These were called plebeian ediles; and afterwards came to have the inspection of the public baths, aqueducts, with many other offices originally belonging to the consuls, after which they were called simply ediles.

This internal discord appears to have produced an unpleasant effect on the population of Rome; the number of its inhabitants capable of bearing arms amounting to no more than 110,000 men.

After the commonwealth had been near 60 years fluctuating between the contending orders that composed it, it was agreed by both senate and people to send forth ambassadors to the Grecian cities, who might bring back various codes of foreign laws, out of which might be extracted such as were most agreeable to the circumstances of the Romans. After they returned, the tribunes required that a body of men should be chosen to digest their new laws into proper form, and to give weight to the execution of them. After long debates whether this choice should not be partly made from the people as well as the patricians, it was at last agreed that ten of the principal senators should be elected, whose power, continuing for a year, should be equal to that of kings and consuls, and that without any appeal. The persons chosen were Appius and Genutius, who had been elected consuls for the ensuing year; Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, the three ambassadors; Sextus and Romulus former consuls; with Julius, Veturius, and Horatius, senators of the first consideration.

The decemviri being now invested with absolute power, agreed to take the reins of government by turns, and that each should dispense justice for a day.

These magistrate, for the first year, wrought with extreme application; and their work being finished, it was expected that they would be contented to give up their offices; but having known the charms of power they were now unwilling to resign it: they therefore pretended that some laws were yet wanting to complete their design, and intreated the senate for a continuance of their offices; to which that body assented.

But they soon threw off the mask of moderation; and regardless either of the approbation of the senate or the people, resolved to continue themselves, against all order, in

the decemvirate. A conduct so notorious produced discontents; and these were as sure to produce fresh acts of tyranny. The city was become almost a desert, with respect to all who had any thing to lose; and the decemvirs' rapacity was then only discontinued when they wanted fresh objects to exercise it upon. In this state of slavery, proscription, and mutual distrust, not one citizen was found to strike for his country's freedom; these tyrants continued to rule without controul, being constantly guarded, not with their lictors alone, but a numerous crowd of dependents, clients, and even patricians, whom their vices had confederated round them.

Their tyranny might have lasted longer, but that a transaction took place so atrocious as to inspire the citizens with a resolution to break all measures of obedience, and at last restore freedom. Appius, sitting one day on his tribunal to dispense justice, saw a maiden of exquisite beauty, and aged about 15, passing to one of the public schools, attended by a matron her nurse. Conceiving a violent passion for her, he resolved to obtain the gratification of his desire, whatever should be the consequence; and found means to inform himself of her name and family. Her name was Virginia, the daughter of Virginius, a centurion, then with the army in the field. He pitched upon one Claudius, who had long been the minister of his pleasures, to assert the beautiful maid was his slave, and to refer the cause to his tribunal for his decision. On the first hearing, Appius pretended to be struck with the justice of the claim of Claudius, but, as the people were extremely tumultuous, it was found necessary to defer the decision of the cause till the arrival of Virginius, who was 11 miles from Rome. The day following was fixed for the trial; and, in the mean time, Appius sent letters to the generals to confine Virginius, as his arrival in the town might only serve to kindle a sedition among the people. These letters, however, were intercepted by the centurion's friends, who sent him down a full relation of the design laid against the liberty and the honour of his only daughter. Virginius, upon this, pretending the death of a near relation, got permission to leave the camp, and flew to Rome, inspired with indignation and revenge. Accordingly the next day he appeared before the tribunal, to the astonishment of Appius, leading his weeping daughter by the hand, both habited in the deepest mourning. Claudius, the accuser, was also there, and began by making his demand. Virginius next spoke in turn: he represented that his wife had many children; that she had been seen pregnant by numbers; that if he had intentions of adopting a supposititious child, he would have fixed upon a boy rather than a girl; that it was notorious to all that his wife had herself suckled her own child; and that it was surprising such a claim should be now revived, after a 15 years discontinuance. While the father spoke this with a stern air, Virginia stood trembling by, and, with looks of persuasive innocence, added weight to all his remonstrances. The people seemed entirely satisfied of the hardship of his case, till Appius, fearing what he said might have dangerous effects upon the multitude, interrupted him, upon a pretence of being sufficiently instructed in the merits of the cause, and finally adjudged her to Claudius, ordering the lictors to carry her off. The lictors, in obedience to his command, soon drove off the throng that pressed round the tribunal; and now they seized upon Virginia, and were delivering her up into the hands of Clau-

dius, when Virginius, who found that all was over, seemed to acquiesce in the sentence He therefore mildly entreated Appius to be permitted to take a last farewel of one, whom he had long considered as his child; and so satisfied, he would return to his duty with fresh alacrity. With this the decemvir complied, but upon condition, that their endearments should pass in his presence. Virginius, with the most poignant anguish, took his almost expiring daughter in his arms, for a while supported her head upon his breast, and wiped away the tears that rolled down her lovely visage; and happening to be near the shops that surrounded the forum, he snatched up a knife that lay on the shambles, and buried the weapon in her breast; then holding it up, reeking with the blood of his daughter. "Appius (he cried) by this blood of innocence, I devote thy "head to the infernal gods." Thus saying, with the bloody knife in his hand, and threatening destruction to whomsoever should oppose him, he ran through the city, wildly calling upon the people to strike for freedom, and from thence went to the camp in order to spread a like flame through the army.

He no sooner arrived at the camp, followed by a number of his friends, but he informed the army of all that was done, still holding the bloody knife in his hand. He asked their pardon and the pardon of the gods for having committed so rash an action, but ascribed it all to the dreadful necessity of the times. The army, already predisposed, immediately with shouts echoed their approbation; and decamping, left their generals behind, to take their station once more upon mount Aventine, whither they had retired about 40 years before. The other army which had been to oppose the Sabines, seemed to feel a like resentment, and came over in large parties to join them.

Appius, in the mean time, did all he could to quell the disturbances in the city: but finding the tumult incapable of controul, and perceiving that his mortal enemies Valerius and Horatius were the most active in opposition, at first attempted to find safety by flight: nevertheless being encouraged by Oppius, who was one of his colleagues, he ventured to assemble the senate, and urged the punishment of all deserters. The senate however, were far from giving him the relief he sought for; they foresaw the dangers and miseries that threatened the state, in case of opposing the incensed army; they therefore dispatched messengers to them, offering to restore their former mode of government. To this proposal all the people joyfully assented, and the army gladly obeyed. Appius and Oppius, one of his colleagues, both died by their hands in prison. The other eight decemvirs went into voluntary exile; and Claudius, the pretended master of Virginia, was driven out after them.

The Romans had, at this time, an experienced general, Camillus, equally renowned for military prowess, and for the virtues that adorned his private life. After commanding the armies of his country on various less important occasions, he was invested with the uncontroulable authority of dictator, and, in this capacity reduced the city of Veii, after he had sustained a siege of 10 years. He obtained possession of Falerii, the capital of the Falisci, by inspiring the inhabitants with a deep veneration for his probity. He was, however, in order to avoid the displeasure of the tribunes, obliged to retreat to Ardea, where he afterwards learned that he had been fined 1500 asses by the tribunes.

The Romans had soon reason to repent their usage of Camillus, for now a more formidable enemy than ever they had yet met with, threatened the republic. France, from the Rhine to the ocean, was inhabited by various fierce nations, who were denominated Gauls, and resembled, in language and manners, the antient inhabitants of Britain. They were invited to leave their woods by Arunx, a chief man of Clusium, who had been grossly injured by one of the Iucumons. He addressed himself to the Senones, and in order to engage them in his quarrel, he acquainted them with the great plenty of Italy, and made them taste of some Italian wines. The Senones collected a numerous army, and passing the Alps under the conduct of their Hetrurian guide, left such of their countrymen unmolested as had already settled in Italy, fell upon Umbria, and possessed themselves of all the country from Ravenna to Picenum. They next laid siege to Clusium, and so terrified the inhabitants that they dispatched envoys to entreat the assistance of the Romans. The Roman ambassadors, after a fruitless attempt to persuade Brennus, the general of the Senones, to relinquish his enterprise, so far forgot their character as to head the Clusini, in a sally which they made upon the besiegers. Incensed at this violation of the law of nations, Brennus demanded satisfaction from the Romans. This they not only refusing, but exalting these ambassadors to the supreme magistracy, under the name of military tribunes, the Gauls broke up the siege of Clusium, and immediately hastened towards Rome. The Roman army was totally defeated, the youth of Rome retired into the capitol, while the old men, women, and children sought refuge in the neigbouring villages. About 80 of the most illustrious and venerable of the senators chose, however, to be massacred in the forum, rather then abandon their native city. In the mean time Camillus having collected an army at Ardea, and procured the reversal of his sentence and an appointment to the dictatorial office by the Romans who were besieged in the capitol, hastened to rescue his country from the power of its enemies. He arrived at Rome just as the senate, not knowing what was become of Camillus, had consented to ransom the city with 1000 pounds weight of gold, and were in the act of discharging the contract. The Gauls, insisting on an augmentation of the sum, Camillus broke off the negociation, drove the Gauls from the city, and defeated them with so dreadful a slaughter, that not one of them is said to have remained as a messenger to carry back the tidings to their native country.

The city had been so entirely destroyed by the Gauls that nothing was to be seen on the place where it had stood, but a few little hills covered with ruins. It was now rebuilt under the direction of the ediles, who had so little taste for order or beauty, that the new erected city was even less regular than the old one had been in the time of Romulus. And though, in Augustus' time, when Rome became the capital of the known world, the temples, palaces, and private houses were built in a more magnificent manner than before; yet even then these new decorations did not rectify the faults of the plan upon which the city had been built after its first demolition.

The Romans, having now triumphed, on various occasions, over the Sabines, the Hetrurians, the Latins, the Hernici, Æqui, and the Volscians, began to look for greater conquests. They accordingly turned their arms against the Samnites, a people

about 100 miles east from the city, descended from the Sabines, and inhabiting a large tract of southern Italy, which, at this day, makes a considerable part of the kingdom of Naples. Without attempting to relate the various events of this war, we shall observe, that the Samnites, after 40 years resistance, were driven to the most extreme distress, and the success of the Romans alarmed all the rest of Italy. The Tarentines, in particular, who had long plotted underhand against the republic, now openly declared themselves; and invited into Italy Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, in hopes of being able, by his means, to subdue the Romans. The office was readily accepted by that ambitious monarch, who had nothing less in view than the conquest of all Italy. Their ambassadors carried magnificent presents for the king, with instructions to acquaint him that they only wanted a general of fame and experience: and that as for troops, they could themselves furnish a numerous army of 20,000 horse, and 350,000 foot, made up of Lucanians, Messapians, Samnites, and Tarentines. Pyrrhus, a king of great courage, ambition, and power, who had always kept the example of Alexander, his great predecessor, before his eyes, promised to come to their assistance; and, in the mean time, dispatched a body of 3000 men, under the command of Cineas, an experienced soldier, and a scholar of the great orator Demosthenes. Nor did he himself remain long behind, but soon after put to sea with 3000 horse, 20,000 foot, and 20 elephants, in which the commanders of that time began to place very great confidence. However, only a small part of this great armament arrived in Italy with him; for many of his ships were dispersed, and some were totally lost in a storm.

Upon his arrival at Tarentum, his first care was to reform the people whom he came to succour. Observing a total dissolution of manners in this luxurious city, and that the inhabitants were rather occupied with the pleasures of bathing, feasting, and dancing, than the care of preparing for war, he gave orders to have all their places of public entertainment shut up; and that they should be restrained in such amusements as rendered soldiers unfit for battle. In the mean time the Romans did all which prudence could suggest, to oppose so formidable an enemy; and the consul Lævinus was sent with a numerous force to interrupt his progress. Pyrrhus, though his whole army was not yet arrived, drew out to meet him; but previously sent an ambassador, desiring to be permitted to mediate between the Romans and the people of Tarentum. To this Lævinus answered, that he neither esteemed him as a mediator, nor feared him as an enemy; and then leading the ambassador through the Roman camp, desired him to observe diligently what he saw, and to report the result to his master.

In consequence of this both armies approaching, pitched their tents in sight of each other, upon the opposite banks of the river Lylis. Pyrrhus was extremely careful in directing the situation of his own camp, and in observing that of the enemy. Walking along the banks of the river, and surveying the Roman method of encamping, he was heard to observe, that these barbarians seemed to be no way barbarous, and that he should too soon find their actions equal to their resolution. In the mean time, ordering a body of men along the banks of the river, he placed them in readiness to oppose the Romans, in case they should attempt to ford it before his whole army was brought

together. Things turned out according to his expectations; the consul, with an impetuosity that marked his inexperience, gave orders for passing the river where it was fordable; and the advanced guard, having attempted to oppose him in vain, was obliged to retire to the main body of the army. Pyrrhus, being apprised of the enemy's attempt, at first hoped to cut off their cavalry, before they could be reinforced by the foot, which were not as yet got over; and led on, in person, a chosen body of horse against them. The Roman legions having, with much difficulty, advanced across the river, the engagement became general; the Greeks fought with a consciousness of their former fame, and the Romans with a desire of gaining fresh glory: mankind had never before seen two such differently disciplined armies opposed to each other, nor is it to this day determined whether the Greek phalanx or the Roman legion were preferable. The combat was long in suspense: the Romans had seven times repulsed the enemy, and were as often driven back themselves; but at length, while the success seemed doubtful, Pyrrhus sent his elephants into the midst of the engagement, and these turned the scale of victory in his favour. The Romans, who had never before seen creatures of such magnitude, were terrified, not only with their intrepid fierceness, but with the castles that were built upon their backs, filled with armed men. It was then that Pyrrhus saw the day was his own; and sending his Thessalian cavalry to charge the enemy in disorder, the route became general. A dreadful slaughter of the Romans ensued, 15,000 men being killed on the spot, and 1800 taken prisoners. Nor were the conquerors in a much better state than the vanquished; Pyrrhus himself being wounded, and 13,000 of his forces slain. Night coming on put an end to the slaughter on both sides, and Pyrrhus was heard to exclaim, that one such victory more would ruin his whole army. The next day as he walked to view the field of battle, he could not help regarding with admiration the bodies of the Romans who were slain. Upon seeing them all with their wounds in front, their countenances, even in death, marked with noble resolution, and a sternness that awed him into respect, he was heard to cry out, in the true spirit of a military adventurer, "Oh! with what "ease could I conquer the world, had I the Romans for soldiers, or had they me "for their king."

During this long and bloody contest with their numerous and powerful enemies, the Romans displayed several instances of that invincible firmness to which they were ultimately indebted for the empire of the world. Though Pyrrhus, after gaining repeated victories, made them repeated proposals for peace, he received no other answer than that the first preliminary of such a treaty, must stipulate his immediate departure from Italy, and his abandoning his allies to the resentment of their enemies. Fabricius, the Roman general, on one occasion, having received a letter from the king's physician, importing that, for a proper reward, he would remove his master by poison, informed Pyrrhus of the affair, and alledged, that he trusted and promoted murderers, while he directed his resentment against the generous and brave. Pyrrhus, who had before both tempted Fabricius by gifts without obtaining his purpose, and had in vain attempted to intimidate him by the appearance of an elephant, exclaimed with amazement, "Admiral Fabricius, "it would be as easy to turn the sun from its course as thee from the path of honour."

Then making the proper inquiry among his servants, and having discovered the treason, he ordered his physician to be executed. And, not to be outdone in magnanimity he immediately sent to Rome all his prisoners without ransom, and again desired to negotiate a peace. The Romans, on the other hand, refused him peace upon any other conditions than had been offered before.

After an interval of two years, Pyrrhus, having increased his army by new levies, sent one part of it to oppose the march of Lentulus, while he himself went to attack Curius Dentatus, before his colleague could come up. His principal aim was to surprise the enemy by night; but unfortunately passing through woods, and his lights failing him, his men lost their way; so that at the approach of morning, he saw himself in sight of the Roman camp, with the enemy drawn out ready to receive him. The vanguard of both armies soon met, in which the Romans had the advantage. Soon after a general engagement ensuing, Pyrrhus, finding the balance of the victory turning still against him, had once more recourse to his elephants. These, however, the Romans were too well acquainted with to feel any vain terrors from; and having found that fire was the most effectual means to repel them, they caused a number of balls to be made, composed of flax and rosin, which were thrown against them as they approached the ranks. The elephants, thus rendered furious by the flame, and as boldly opposed by the soldiers, could no longer be brought on, but ran back upon their own army, bearing down the ranks, and filling all places with terror and confusion. Thus victory at length declared in favour of Rome. Pyrrhus in vain attempted to stop the flight and slaughter of his troops; he lost not only 23,000 of his best soldiers, but his camp was also taken. This served as a new lesson to the Romans, who were ever open to improvement. They had formerly pitched their tents without order; but by this new capture they were taught to measure out the ground, and fortify the whole with a trench; so that many of their succeeding victories are to be ascribed to their improved method of encamping.

Pyrrhus, thus finding all hopes fruitless, resolved to leave Italy, where he found only desperate enemies and faithless allies: accordingly calling together the Tarentines, he informed them that he had received assurances from Greece of speedy assistance, and desiring them to await the event with tranquillity, the night following embarked with his troops, and returned undisturbed into his native kingdom, with the remains of his shattered forces, leaving a garrison in Tarentum merely to save appearances: and in this manner ended the war with Pyrrhus, after six years continuance.

As for the poor luxurious Tarentines, who were the original promoters of this war, they soon began to find a worse enemy in the garrison that was left for their defence, than in the Romans who attacked them from without. The hatred between them and Milo, who commanded their citadel for Pyrrhus, was become so great, that nothing but the fear of their old inveterate enemies, the Romans, could equal it. In this distress they applied to the Carthaginians, who, with a large fleet, came and blocked up the port of Tarentum; so that this unfortunate people, once famous through Italy for their refinements and pleasure, now saw themselves contended for by three different armies, without the choice of a conqueror. At length, however, the Romans found means to bring

over the garrison to their interest; after which they easily became masters of the city, and demolished its walls, granting the inhabitants liberty and protection. This war was terminated by the submission of the Lucanians, Bruttians, Tarentines, Sarcinates, Picentes, and Salentines; so that Rome now became mistress of all the nations from the remotest parts of Hetruria to the Ionean city, and from the Tyrrhenian sea to the Adriatic. All these nations however did not enjoy the same privileges. Some were entirely subject to the republic, and had no laws but what they received from thence; others retained their old laws and customs, but in subjection to the republic: some were tributary; and others allies, who were obliged to furnish troops at their own expence when the Romans required. Some had the privilege of Roman citizenship, their soldiers being incorporated in the legions; while others had a right of suffrage in the elections made by the centuries. These different degrees of honour, privileges, and liberty, were founded on the different terms granted to the conquered nations when they surrendered, and were afterwards increased according to their fidelity, and the services they did the republic.

The Romans now began to extend their view beyond the main land of Italy, and to wish to possess themselves of the neighbouring islands. For this purpose they maintained 24 years war with the inhabitants of Carthage, a maritime state of Africa, whose history will be hereafter recited. It is sufficient here to observe, that by the treaty of pacification which was made about 240 years before the christian era, they obtained Sicily, beside compelling the Carthaginians to submit to other disadvantageous conditions.

The Romans, being in friendship with all nations, had an opportunity of turning to the arts of peace: they now began to have a relish for poetry, the first liberal art which rises in every civilized nation, and the first also that decays. Hitherto they had been entertained only with the rude drolleries of the lowest buffoons: they had sports called Fescennini, in which a few debauched actors invented their own parts, while raillery and indecency supplied the place of humour. To these a composition of a higher kind succeeded, called satire; a sort of dramatic poem, in which the characters of the great were particularly pointed out, and made an object of derision to the vulgar. After these came tragedy and comedy, which were borrowed from the Greeks; indeed the first dramatic poet of Rome, whose name was Livius Andronicus, was by birth a Grecian. The instant these finer kinds of composition appeared, this great people rejected their former impurities with disdain. From thenceforward they laboured upon the Grecian model; and though they were never able to rival their masters in dramatic composition, they soon surpassed them in many of the more soothing kinds of poetry. Elegiac, pastoral, and didactic compositions began to assume new beauties in the Roman language; and satire, not that rude kind of dialogue already mentioned, but a nobler sort was all their own.

About this time the Romans seized on the islands of Sardinia, Corsica, and Malta, and in the year 219 B. C. the two former were reduced to the form of a province. The next war was with the Illyrians, who irritated them by the practice of piracy. By

the event of this war they obtained the islands of Corcyra, Issa, Pharos, the city of Dyrrhachium, and the country of the Atintanes. The Gauls were the next people that incurred the displeasure of the Romans. A time of peace, when the armies were disbanded, was the proper season for new irruptions, and these barbarians invited fresh forces from beyond the Alps, and entering Hetruria, wasted all with fire and sword, till they came within about three days journey of Rome. A prætor and a consul were sent to oppose them, who now, instructed in the improved arts of war, were enabled to surround the Gauls. It was in vain that those hardy troops, who had nothing but courage to protect them, formed two fronts to oppose their adversaries; their naked bodies and undisciplined forces were unable to withstand the shock of an enemy completely armed, and skilled in military evolutions. A miserable slaughter ensued, in which 40,000 were killed, and 10,000 taken prisoners. This victory was followed by another, gained by Marcellus, in which he killed Viridamarius, their king, with his own hand. These conquests forced them to beg for peace, the conditions of which served greatly to enlarge the empire. Thus the Romans went on with success; retrieved their former losses, and only wanted an enemy worthy of their arms to begin a new war.

The second punic war for some time retarded the conquests of the Romans, and even threatened their state with entire destruction; but Hannibal, being at last recalled from Italy, and entirely defeated at Zama, the Carthaginians made peace upon such disadvantageous terms, as gave the Romans an entire superiority over that republic, which they not long after entirely subverted, as shall be related in the history of Carthage.

The successful issue of the second punic war had greatly increased the extent of the Roman empire. They were now masters of all Sicily, the Mediterranean islands, and great part of Spain; and, through the dissensions of the Asiatic states with the king of Macedon, a pretence was found to carry their arms into these parts. The kings of Macedon, through misconduct, were first obliged to submit to a disadvantageous peace, and at last totally subdued. The reduction of Macedon was soon followed by that of all Greece, either by the name of allies or otherwise: while Antiochus the Great, to whom Hannibal fled for protection, by an unsuccessful war, first gave the Romans a footing in Asia.

The Spaniards and Gauls continued to be the most obstinate enemies.

At the time of the Roman conquests, Spain, though prodigious quantities of silver had been carried out of it by the Carthaginians and Tyrians, was yet a very rich country. In the most antient times, indeed, its riches are said to have exceeded what is related of the most wealthy country of America. Aristotle assures us, that when the Phœnicians first arrived in Spain, they exchanged their naval commodites for such immense quantities of silver, that their ships could neither contain nor sustain its load, though they used it for ballast, and made their anchors and other implements of silver. When the Carthaginians first came to Spain, they found the quantity of silver nothing lessened, since the inhabitants at that time made all their utensils and even mangers of that precious metal. In the time of the Romans this amazing plenty was very much diminished; however their gleanings were by no means despicable, since in the space of nine years,

they carried off 111,542 pounds of silver, and 4095 of gold, besides an immense quantity of corn and other things of value. The Spaniards were always remarkable for their bravery, and some of Hannibal's best troops were brought from thence. But as the Romans penetrated farther into the country than the Carthaginians had done, they met with nations whose love of liberty was equal to their valour, and whom the whole strength of their empire was scarce able to subdue. Of these the most formidable were the Numantines, Cantabrians, and Asturians.

In the time of the third Punic war, one Viriathus, a celebrated hunter, and afterwards the captain of a gang of banditti, took upon him the command of some nations who had been in alliance with Carthage, and opposed, for the space of 14 years, the Roman power in that part of Spain called Lusitania, now Portugal. He was at length removed by assassination. During the war with Viriathus the Numantines offered to enter into a treaty of peace and alliance with the Romans, the latter, however, demanding their arms, they determined rather to defend themselves to the last extremity. Thrice did these conquerors of the world besiege Numantia without success, and twice did they owe their lives to the generosity of their enemies. In the last instance the people refused to confirm the peace the consul had been compelled to conclude, and even commanded him to be delivered up to the Numantines, that they might revenge on him the violation of the treaty. The Spaniards rejected this sacrifice with disdain, and continued to make a very effectual resistance till the year 133 B. C. when Scipio Æmilianus, the destroyer of Carthage, was sent against them. Against this renowned commander the Numantines, with all their valour, were not able to cope. Scipio having, with the utmost care, introduced strict discipline among his troops, and reformed the abuses which his predecessors had suffered in their armies, by degrees brought the Romans to face their enemies, which at his arrival they had absolutely refused to do. Having then ravaged all the country round about the town it was soon blocked up on all sides, and the inhabitants began to feel the want of provisions. At last they resolved to make one desperate attempt for their liberty, and either to break though their enemies, or perish in the attempt. With this view they marched out in good order by two gates, and fell upon the works of the Romans with the utmost fury. The Romans, unable to stand this desperate sheet, were on the point of yielding; but Scipio, hastening to the places attacked, with no fewer than 20,000 men, the unhappy Numantines were at last driven into the city, where they sustained for a little longer the miseries of famine. Finding, at last, however, that it was altogether impossible to hold out, it was resolved by the majority to submit to the pleasure of the Roman commander. But this resolution was not universally approved. Many shut themselves up in their houses and died of hunger, while even those who had agreed to surrender repented their offer, and setting fire to their houses, perished in the flames with their wives and children, so that not a single Numantine was left alive to grace the triumph of the conqueror of Carthage.

It was not long before the Romans revenged upon themselves the injustice and cruelty they had exercised against the Numantines. Tiberius Gracchus had been the chief author and negociator of that shameful necessary peace with the Numantines; which the

senate, with the utmost injustice disannulled; and condemned the consul, the quæstor, and all the officers who had signed it, to be delivered up to the Numantines. The people indeed out of esteem for Gracchus, would not suffer him to be sacrificed: but, however, he had just reason to complain both of the senate and people, for passing so scandalous a decree against his general and himself, and breaking a treaty whereby the lives of so many citizens had been saved. But as the senate had chiefly promoted such base and iniquitous proceedings, he resolved, in due time, to shew his resentment against the party which had contributed most to his disgrace. Having caused himself to be elected tribune, he procured the revival of the Licinian law, which enacted that no citizen should possess more than 500 acres: and got a new law passed that the treasures of Attilus should be divided among the people. He had too far incensed the patricians to expect safety any longer than he continued in his inviolate character. He therefore solicited his re-election to the tribunitian office, but was massacred with a great number of his friends by the partizans of the senate, under the pretence of his aspiring to the regal dignity. His brother, Caius Gracchus, made various attempts to humble the senate and the rest of the patrician body: the ultimate consequence of which was, that a price was set on his head, and that of Fulvius his confederate, no less than their weight in gold, to any one who should bring them to Opimius, the chief the patrician party. Thus the custom of proscription was begun by the patricians, of which they themselves soon had enough. Gracchus and Fulvius were sacrificed, but the disorders of the republic were not so easily cured.

About 90 years before the christian era, Marius and Sylla, two experienced generals, became rivals; the former adhering to the people, and the latter to the patricians. Marius associated with one of the tribunes, named Sulpitius; in conjunction with whom he raised such disturbances that Sylla was forced to retire from the city. Having thus driven off his rival, Marius got himself appointed general against Mithridates, king of Pontus; but the soldiers refused to obey any other than Sylla. A civil war immediately ensued, in which Marius was driven out in his turn, and a price set upon his head and that of Sulpitius, with many of their adherents. Sulpitius was soon seized and killed; but Marius made his escape. In the mean time, however, the cruelties of Sylla rendered him obnoxious both to the senate and people; Cinna, a furious partizan of the Marian faction, being chosen consul, cited him to give an account of his conduct. Upon this Sylla thought proper to set out for Asia. Marius was recalled from Africa, whither he had fled; and immediately on his landing in Italy, was joined by a great number of shepherds, slaves, and men of desperate fortunes, so that he soon saw himself at the head of a considerable army.

Cinna, in the mean time, whom the senators had deposed and driven out of Rome, solicited and obtained a powerful army from the allies; and being joined by Sertorius, a most able and experienced general, the two, in conjunction with Marius, advanced towards the capital; and as their forces daily increased, a fourth army was formed, under the command of Papirius Carbo. The senate raised some forces to defend the city; but the troops being vastly inferior in number, and likewise inclined to the contrary side,

they were obliged to open their gates to the confederates. Marius entered at the head of a numerous guard, composed of slaves, whom he called Bardiæans, and whom he designed to employ in revenging himself on his enemies. The first order that he gave these assassins was, to murder all who came to salute him, and were not answered with like civility. As every one was forward to pay his compliments to the new tyrant, this order proved the destruction of vast numbers. At last the Bardiæans abandoned themselves to such excesses in every kind of vice, that Cinna and Sertorius ordered their troops to fall upon them; which being instantly put in execution, they were all cut off to a man.

By the destruction of his guards, Marius was reduced to the necessity of taking a method of gratifying his revenge, somewhat more tedious, though equally effectual. A conference was held between the four chiefs, in which Marius seemed quite frantic with rage. Sertorius endeavoured to moderate his fury; but being over-ruled by Cinna and Carbo, a resolution was taken, to murder without mercy, all the senators who had opposed the popular faction. This was immediately put in execution. A general slaughter commenced, which lasted five days, and during which the greatest part of the obnoxious senators were cut off, their heads stuck upon poles over against the rostra, and their bodies dragged with hooks into the forum, where they were left to be devoured by dogs. Sylla's house was demolished, his goods confiscated, and he himself declared an enemy to his country; however, his wife and children had the good fortune to make their escape. This massacre was not confined to the city of Rome. The soldiers, like so many blood-hounds, were dispersed over the country in search of those who fled from the neighbouring towns, villages, and all the highways swarmed with assassins; and on this occasion, Plutarch observes with great concern that the most sacred ties of friendship and hospitality are not proof against treachery in the day of adversity; for there were but very few who did not discover their friends who had fled to them for shelter.

This slaughter being over, Cinna named himself and Marius consuls for the ensuing year; and these tyrants resolved to begin the new year as they had ended the old one: but, while they were preparing to renew such scenes of blood, Sylla, having proved victorious in the east, sent a long letter to the senate, giving an account of his many victories, and his resolution of returning to Rome, not to restore peace to his country, but to revenge himself of his enemies, i. e. to destroy those whom Marius had spared. This letter occasioned an universal terror. Marius, dreading to enter the lists with such a renowned warrior, gave himself up to excessive drinking, and died. His son was associated with Cinna in the government, though not in the consulship, and proved a tyrant no less cruel than his father. The senate declared one Valerius Flaccus general of the forces in the east, and appointed him a considerable army; but the troops all to a man deserted him, and joined Sylla. Soon after Cinna declared himself a consul the third time, and took for his colleague Papirius Carbo; but the citizens dreading the tyranny of these inhuman monsters, fled in crouds to Sylla, who was now in Greece. To him the senate sent deputies, begging that he would have compassion on his country, and not carry his resentment to such a length as to begin a civil war; but he replied, that he was coming

to Rome full of rage and revenge; and that all his enemies if the Roman people consented to it should perish either by the sword or the axes of the executioners. Upon this several very numerous armies were formed against him; but through the misconduct of the generals who commanded them, these armies were every where defeated, or went over to the enemy. Pompey, afterwards stiled the Great, signalized himself in this war, and embraced the party of Sylla. The Italian nations took some one side, and some another, as their different inclinations led them. Cinna in the mean time was killed in the tumult, and young Marius and Carbo succeeded him; but the former having ventured an engagement with Sylla, was by him defeated, and forced to fly to Prænestе, where he was closely besieged.

When Sylla had overcome all his enemies, he marched first to Atemnæ, and thence to Rome. From the former city he carried 8000 prisoners to Rome, and caused them all to be massacred at once in the circus. His cruelty next fell upon the Prænestines, 12,000 of whom were massacred without mercy. Young Marius had killed himself, in order to avoid falling into the hands of such a cruel enemy. Soon after the inhabitants of Norba, a city of Campania, finding themselves unable to resist the forces of the tyrant, set fire to their houses, and all perished in the flames. The taking of these cities put an end to the civil war, but not to the cruelties of Sylla. Having assembled the people in the comitium, he told them that he was resolved not to spare a single person who had borne arms against him. This cruel resolution he put in execution with the most unrelenting rigour: and having at last cut off all those whom he thought capable of opposing him, Sylla caused himself to be declared perpetual dictator; or, in other words, king and absolute sovereign of Rome.

This revolution happened about 80 B. C. and from this time we may date the loss of the Roman liberty. Sylla indeed resigned his power in two years; but the citizens of Rome, having once submitted, were ever after more inclined towards monarchy. New masters were indeed already prepared for the republic. Cæsar and Pompey had eminently distinguished themselves by their martial exploits, and were already rivals. They were, however, for some time prevented from raising any disturbances, by being kept at a distance from each other. Sertorius, one of the generals of the Marian faction, and the only one of them possessed either of honour or probity, had retired into Spain, where he erected a republic independent of Rome. Pompey and Metellus, two of the best reputed generals in Rome, were sent against him, but instead of conquering him, were, on all occasions, conquered by him, and obliged to abandon their enterprize with disgrace. At last Sertorius was treacherously murdered; and the traitors, who after his death usurped the command, being totally destitute of his abilities, were easily defeated by Pompey: and thus that general reaped an undeserved honour, concluding that war with success.

Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus continued to make various efforts to gratify their ambition. They were so far successful as to destroy the liberty of the republic, but neither of them could obtain so complete an ascendancy as to seize the entire management of affairs. At length Cæsar proposed that they should form a triumvirate, or association

of three persons (Pompey, Crassus, and himself), in which would be lodged the whole power of the senate and people; and, in order to make their confederacy the more lasting, they bound themselves by mutual oaths and promises to stand by each other, and suffer nothing to be undertaken or carried into execution without the unanimous consent of all the three.

The first consequence of this association was the consulship of Cæsar, who found himself, however, notwithstanding he distributed large sums among the people, united with a colleague, who was repugnant to his views. He next procured the passing an agrarian law, which rendered him extremely popular. He then gained the favour of the knights by remitting a third of the rents which they had annually paid into the treasury; after which he governed Rome with an absolute sway during the time of his consulate. The reign of this triumvir, however, was ended by his expedition into Gaul: where his military exploits acquired him the highest reputation. Pompey and Crassus, in the mean time, became consuls, and governed as despotically as Cæsar himself had done. On the expiration of their first consulate, the republic fell into a kind of anarchy, entirely owing to the disorders occasioned by the two late consuls. At last, however, this confusion was ended by raising Crassus and Pompey to the consulate a second time. This was no sooner done, than a new partition of the empire was proposed. Crassus was to have Syria and all the eastern provinces, Pompey was to govern Africa and Spain, and Cæsar to be continued in Gaul, and all this for the space of five years. This law was passed by a great majority; upon which Crassus undertook an expedition against the Parthians, whom he imagined he should easily overcome, and then enrich himself with their spoils; Cæsar applied, with great assiduity, to the completing the conquest of Gaul; and Pompey, having nothing to do in his province, staid at Rome to govern the republic alone.

The affairs of the Romans were now hastening to a crisis. Crassus, having oppressed all the provinces of the east, was totally defeated and killed by the Parthians; after which the two great rivals, Cæsar and Pompey, were left alone, without any third person, who could hold the balance between them, or prevent the deadly quarrels which were about to ensue. Matters, however, continued pretty quiet, till Gaul was reduced to a Roman province. The question then was, whether Cæsar or Pompey should first resign the command of their armies, and return to the rank of private persons. As both parties saw, that whosoever laid down his arms, must, of course, submit to the other, both refused to disarm themselves. The senate at last gave the signal for a civil war, by passing the fatal decree which deprived Cæsar of his government, and commanded Pompey to take care of the republic. Three of the tribunes, who had been the friends of Cæsar, were driven out of Rome, and arrived in his camp disguised like slaves. Cæsar shewed them to his army in this ignominious habit; and setting forth the iniquity of the senate and patricians, exhorted his men to stand by their general, under whom they had served so long with success; and finding, by their acclamations, that he could depend on them, he resolved to begin hostilities immediately.

The night before his intended expedition into Italy, he sat down to table, cheerfully conversing with his friends on subjects of literature and philosophy, and apparently

disengaged from every ambitious concern. After some time, rising up, he desired the company to make themselves joyous in his absence, and that he would be with them in a moment: in the mean time, having ordered his chariot to be prepared, he immediately set out, attended by a few friends, for Arminium, a city upon the confines of Italy, whither he had dispatched a part of his army the morning before. This journey by night, which was very fatiguing, he performed with great diligence, sometimes walking, and sometimes on horseback, till at the break of day, he came up with his army, which consisted of about 5000 men, near the Rubicon, a little river, which separates Italy from Gaul, and which terminated the limits of his command. The Romans had ever been taught to consider this river as the sacred boundary of their domestic empire; Cæsar, therefore, when he advanced at the head of his army to the side of it, stopt short upon the bank, as if impressed with terror at the greatness of his enterprize. He could not pass without transgressing the laws; and therefore pondered for some time in fixed melancholy, looking and debating with himself whether he should venture in. "If I "pass this river," says he to one of his generals, "what miseries shall I bring upon my "country; and if now I stop short, I am undone. Let us go where the gods and the "injustice of our enemies call us." Thus saying, and resuming all his former alacrity, he plunged in, crying out, "The die is cast, and now all is over." His soldiers followed him with equal promptitude, and having passed the Rubicon, quickly arrived at Arminium, and made themselves masters of the place without any resistance.

The activity of Cæsar had so much intimidated his enemies, that he had few difficulties to encounter, in order to make himself master of Italy. Without waiting the event of an engagement, Pompey retreated from Rome to Capua, from Capua to Brundusium, and from Brundusium set sail for Epirus. Being desirous of stopping to pursue his rival, Cæsar resolved first to settle some kind of government at Rome, and then passing to Spain, to drive from thence the partizans of Pompey, who had taken possession of that extensive country, under the command of Afranius and Petreius. This last purpose was not effected without considerable labour, and being reduced to suffer such extremity of famine, that wheat was sold in his camp at 50 Roman denarii, that is 1*l.* 12*s.* 1½*d.* per bushel. We have not room to describe the various operations of this war, but must observe briefly, that Pompey was totally defeated in a large plain, near the cities of Pharsalia and Thebes; and after that treacherously murdered by his professed friends on the coast of Egypt. The civil war was at length terminated by a compete victory, which Cæsar obtained over the sons of Pompey, in the plains of Munda, in Spain.

Having now subdued all his enemies, Cæsar returned to Rome, for the last time, to receive new dignities and honours; and to enjoy an accumulation of all the great offices of the state. Still, however, he pretended to a moderation in the enjoyment of his power; he left the consuls to be named by the people; but, as he possessed all the authority of the office, it from this time began to sink into contempt. He enlarged the number of senators also; but as he had previously destroyed their power, their new honours were but empty titles. He took care to pardon all who had taken up arms against him, but

not till he had deprived them of the power of resistance. He even set up once more the statues of Pompey; which, however, as Cicero observed, he only did to preserve his own. The rest of this man's extraordinary life was employed for the advantage of the state. He adorned the city with magnificent buildings; he rebuilt Carthage and Corinth, sending colonies to both cities; he undertook to level several mountains in Italy, to drain the Pontine marshes near Rome, and designed to cut through the isthmus of Peloponnesus. Thus he formed mighty projects and designs, beyond the limits of the longest life; but the greatest of all was his intended expedition against the Parthians, by which he designed to revenge the death of Crassus; then to pass through Hyrcania, and enter Scythia along the banks of the Caspian sea; from thence to open himself a way through the immensurable forests of Germany into Gaul, and so return to Rome. These were the aims of ambition; but the jealousy of a few individuals put an end to them all.

A deep laid conspiracy was formed against him, by no fewer than 60 senators. At the head of this conspiracy was Brutus; whose life Cæsar had spared after the battle of Pharsalia; and Cassius, who had been pardoned soon after; both prætors for the present year. Brutus made it his chief glory to have been descended from that Brutus who first gave liberty to Rome; and from a desire of following his example, broke all the ties of private friendship, and entered into a conspiracy which was to destroy his benefactor. Cassius, on the other hand, was impetuous and proud, and hated Cæsar's person still more than his cause. He had often sought an opportunity of gratifying his revenge by assassination which took rise rather from private than public motives.

The conspirators, to give a colour of justice to their proceedings, remitted the execution of this design to the ides of March, the day on which it was reported that Cæsar was to be offered the crown. The augurs had foretold that this day would be fatal to him; and the night preceding, he heard his wife Calphurnia lamenting in her sleep, and being awakened, she confessed to him that she dreamt of his being assassinated in her arms. These omens, in some measure, began to change his intentions of going to the senate, as he had resolved that day; but one of the conspirators coming in prevailed upon him to keep his resolution, telling him of the reproach which would attend his staying at home till his wife had lucky dreams, and of the preparations that were made for his appearance. As he went along to the senate, a slave, who had hastened to him with information of the conspiracy, attempted to come near him, but could not for the croud. Artemidorus, a Greek philosopher, who had discovered the whole plot, delivered to him the memorial containing the heads of his information; but Cæsar gave it, with other papers to one of his secretaries, without reading, as was usual with things of this nature. As soon as he had taken his place in the senate, the conspirators came near him, under a pretence of saluting him; and Cimber, who was one of them, approached in a suppliant posture, pretending to sue for his brother's pardon, who was banished by his order. All the conspirators seconded him with great tenderness; and Cimber, seeming to sue with still greater submission, took hold of the bottom of his robe, holding him so as to prevent his rising. This was the signal agreed on. Casca, who was behind, stabbed him,

though slightly, in the shoulder. Cæsar instantly turned round, and with the style of his tablet, wounded him in the arm. However, all the conspirators were now alarmed; and inclosing him round, he received a second stab, from an unknown hand, in the breast, while Cassius wounded him in the face. He still defended himself with great vigour, rushing among them, and throwing down such as opposed him, till he saw Brutus among the conspirators, who, coming up struck his dagger in his thigh. From that moment Cæsar thought no more of defending, but looking upon this conspirator, cried out, "And you too Brutus!" Then covering his head, and spreading his robe before him, in order to fall with greater decency, he sunk down at the base of Pompey's statue, after receiving 23 wounds, in the 56th year of his age, and the fourth of his reign.

The death of Cæsar was followed by an interval of great confusion, during which Antony and Octavius discovered much zeal to revenge his death. Octavius having gained the consulship, procured a law for the condemnation of Brutus and Cassius; after which he joined his forces with those of Antony and Lepidus.

The meeting of these three usurpers of their country's freedom was near Mutina, upon a little island of the river Panarus. Their mutual suspicions were the cause of their meeting in this place. Lepidus first entered, and finding all things safe, made the signal for the other two to approach. Octavius began the conference by thanking Antony for his zeal in putting Decimus Brutus to death; who, being abandoned by his army, was taken as he was designing to escape into Macedonia, and beheaded by Antony's command. Their conference lasted three days; and the result of it was, that the supreme authority should be lodged in their hands under the title of the triumvirate, for the space of five years; that Antony should have Gaul; Lepidus Spain; and Octavius Africa and the Mediterranean islands. As for Italy and the eastern provinces they were to remain in common until their general enemy was entirely subdued. But the last article of their union was a dreadful one. It was agreed that all their enemies should be destroyed; of which each presented a list. In these were comprised not only the enemies but the friends of the triumvirate, since the partizans of the one were often found among the opposers of the others. Thus Lepidus gave up his brother Paulus to the vengeance of his colleague; Antony permitted the proscription of his uncle Lucius; and Octavius delivered up the great Cicero. The most sacred rights of nature were violated; 300 senators and above 2000 knights were included in this terrible proscription; their fortunes confiscated, and their murderers enriched with their spoil. Rome soon felt the effects of this infernal union, and the horrid cruelties of Marius and Sylla were renewed. As many as could escape the cruelty of the triumvirs fled either into Macedonia to Brutus, or found refuge with young Pompey, who was now in Sicily, and covered the Mediterranean with his numerous navy. Their cruelties were not aimed at the men alone, but the softer sex were in danger of being marked as objects either of avarice or resentment. They made out a list of 1400 women of the best quality, and the rest in the city, who were ordered to give an account of their fortunes, to be taxed in proportion. But this seemed so unpopular a measure, and was so firmly opposed by Hortensia, who spoke against it, that instead of 1400 women they were content to tax

only 400. However they made up the deficiency, by extending the tax upon men; near 100,000, as well citizens as strangers, were compelled to furnish supplies to the subversion of their country's freedom. At last both the avarice and the vengeance of the triumviri seemed fully satisfied, and they went into the senate to declare that the proscription was at an end; and thus having deluged the city with blood, Octavius and Antony, leaving Lepidus to defend Rome in their absence, marched with their army to oppose the conspirators, who were now at the head of a formidable army in Asia.

Brutus and Cassius, having quitted Italy like distressed exiles, found so many adherents in Greece, Macedonia, and Syria, that they were soon at the head of a formidable army, prepared to contest the empire of the world. Having heard that Octavius and Antony were on their march to oppose them, Brutus moved that they should pass over into Macedonia and Greece, and there meet the enemy; but Cassius prevailed that they should stay in Asia till the Rhodians and Lycians were first reduced. When these purposes had been effected, Brutus and Cassius met once more at Sardis; where, after the usual ceremonies were passed between them, they resolved to have a private conference together; when, after much altercation, they were at last perfectly reconciled. After which, night coming on, Cassius invited Brutus and his friends to an entertainment.

Upon retiring from him it was that Brutus, as Plutarch tells the story, saw a spectre in his tent. It was in the dead of the night, when the whole camp was perfectly quiet, that Brutus was employed in reading by a lamp that was just expiring. On a sudden he thought he heard a noise as if somebody entered; and looking towards the door, he perceived it open. A gigantic figure, with a frightful aspect, stood before him, and continued to gaze upon him with silent severity. At last Brutus had courage to speak to it, "Art thou a demon or a mortal man? and why comest thou to me?" "Brutus" replied the phantom, "I am thy evil genius, thou shalt see me again at Philippi." "Well "then," answered Brutus, without being discomposed, "we shall meet again." Upon which the phantom vanished; and Brutus calling to his servants, asked if they had seen any thing, to which replying in the negative, he again resumed his studies. But as he was struck with so strange an occurrence, he mentioned it the next day to Cassius, who being an Epicurean, ascribed it to the effect of imagination, too much exercised by vigilance and anxiety. Brutus appeared satisfied with this solution of his late terrors: and as Antony and Octavius were now advanced into Macedonia, they soon after passed over into Thrace, and advanced to the city of Philippi, near which the forces of the triumvirs were posted.

A battle soon ensued; in which the republicans were defeated and Cassius killed.

The first care of Brutus, when he became the sole general, was to assemble the dispersed troops of Cassius, and animate them with fresh hopes of victory. As they had lost all they possesssed by the plundering of their camp, he promised them 2000 denarii each man to make up their losses. This once more inspired them with new ardour; they admired the liberality of their general, and with loud shouts proclaimed his former intrepidity. Still, however, he had not confidence sufficient to face the adversary, who offered him battle the ensuing day. His aim was to starve his enemies, who were in

extreme want of provisions, their fleet having been lately defeated. But his single opinion was over-ruled by the rest of his army, who now grew every day more confident of their strength, and more arrogant to their new general. He was therefore, at last, after a respite of 20 days, obliged to comply with their solicitations, to try the fate of the battle. Both armies being drawn out, they remained a long while opposite to each other, without offering to engage. It is said that he himself had lost much of his natural ardour, by having again seen the spectre the night preceding; however, he encouraged his men as much as possible, and gave the signal for battle, within three hours of the sunset. Fortune again declared against him; and the two triumvirs expressly ordered by no means to suffer the general to escape, for fear he should renew the war. Thus the whole body of the enemy seemed chiefly intent on Brutus alone, and his capture seemed inevitable. In this deplorable exigence, Lucillius, his friend, resolved, by his own death, to effect the general's delivery. Upon perceiving a body of Thracian horse closely pursuing Brutus, and just upon the point of taking him, he boldly threw himself in their way, telling them them that he was Brutus. The Thracians, overjoyed at so great a prize, immediately dispatched some of their companions with the news of their success to the army. Upon which, the ardour of their pursuit now abating, Antony marched out to meet his prisoner; some silently deploring the fate of such a virtuous man; others reproaching that mean desire of life, for which he consented to undergo captivity. Brutus now seeing the Thracians approach, began to prepare himself for the interview: but the faithful Lucilius, advancing with a cheerful air, owned the deceit that he had put upon him: on which the triumvir, struck with so much fidelity, pardoned him on the spot; and from that time forward loaded him with benefits, and honoured him with his friendship.

In the mean time Brutus, with a small number of friends, passed over a river; and night coming on, set down under a rock, which concealed him from the pursuit of the enemy. After taking breath for a little time, he sent out one Statilius to give him some information of those that remained; but he never returned, being killed by a party of the enemy's horse. Brutus, judging very rightly of his fate, now resolved to die like a man, and spoke to those who stood round him to lend him their last sad assistance. None of them, however, would render him so melancholy a piece of service. At last one Strato, averting his head, presented the sword's point to Brutus; who threw himself upon it, and immediately expired.

From the moment of Brutus's death the triumviri began to act as sovereigns, and to divide the Roman dominions between them, as theirs by right of conquest. However, though they were apparently three who thus participated all the power, yet, in fact, only two were actually possessed of it; since Lepidus was at first admitted merely to curb the mutual jealousy of Antony and Octavius, and was possessed neither of interest in the army, nor authority among the people. Their first care was to punish those whom they had formerly marked for vengeance. The head of Brutus was sent to Rome to be thrown at the foot of Cæsar's statue. His ashes, however, were sent to his wife Porcia, Cato's daughter, who afterwards killed herself by swallowing burning coals. It is

observed, that of all those who had a hand in the death of Cæsar, not one died a natural death.

The power of the triumviri being thus established upon the ruin of the commonwealth, they now began to think of enjoying that homage to which they had aspired. After receiving the flattery of the Greeks, Antony passed over into Asia, exacted contributions, distributed favours, and gave away crowns with capricious insolence.

Having met with Cleopatra, the celebrated queen of Egypt, he contracted that intimacy with her which proved the ruin of them both, as will be hereafter related.

Octavius, in the mean time, led back the veteran troops, settled them in Italy, and gave them lands of which he deprived the peaceable inhabitants. After a long succession of wars with his three rivals, Sextus Pompeius, Lepidus, and Antony, he found means to accomplish the ruin of them all.

And now Octavius was at the height of his wishes, sole sovereign, sole master of the whole Roman empire. But, on the other hand, the many dangers which attend an usurped power, appearing to him in stronger light than ever, filled his mind with uneasy and perplexing thoughts. The general aversion of the Romans to a kingly government, their love of liberty, and the ides of March, when his father Julius was murdered in full senate, by those very men whom he thought the most devoted to his person, made him fear lest there might arise another Brutus, who, to restore liberty to his country, might assassinate him on his very throne. This he knew had happened to Julius Cæsar; whereas Sylla, after having laid down the authority he had usurped, died peaceably in his bed, in the midst of his enemies. The passion of fear outweighed in his soul the charms of absolute dominion, and inclined him to follow the example of Sylla. He was indeed very unwilling to part with his authority: but fear began to get the better of his ambition. However, before he came to any resolution, he thought it advisable to consult his two most intimate and trusty friends, Agrippa and Mæcenas; the former no less famous for his probity than his valour; and the latter a man of great penetration, and generally esteemed the most refined politician of his age. Agrippa enlarged on the many and almost inevitable dangers which attend monarchy, insupportable to a free people, and to men educated in a commonwealth. He did not forget the examples of Sylla and Cæsar, and closed his speech with exhorting Octavius to convince the world, by restoring liberty to his country, that the only motive for his taking up arms, was to revenge his father's death.

Mæcenas, on the other hand, remonstrated to him, that he had done too much to go back; that after so much bloodshed, there could be no safety for him but on the throne, that if he divested himself of the sovereign power, he would be immediately prosecuted by the children and friends of the many illustrious persons whom the misfortunes of the times had forced him to sacrifice to his safety; that it was absolutely necessary for the welfare and tranquillity of the republic, that the sovereign power should be lodged in one person, and not divided among many, &c. Octavius thanked them both for their friendly advice, but shewed himself inclined to follow the opinion of Mæcenas; whereupon that able minister gave him many wise instructions and rules of government, which

are related by Dio Cassius, and will ever be looked upon as a master piece in politics. Among other things he told him, That he could not fail of being successful in all his undertakings, happy in his life-time, and famous in history after his death, if he never deviated from this rule; to wit, To govern others as he would wish to be governed himself, had he been born to obey and not to command. He added, That if, in taking upon him the sovereign power, he dreaded the name of king, a name so odious in a commonwealth, he might content himself with the title of Cæsar or Imperator, and under that name, which was well known to the Romans, enjoy all the authority of a king.

This advice Octavius followed, and from that time laid aside all thoughts of abdicating the sovereign power; but, to deceive the people into a belief that they still enjoyed their antient government, he continued the old magistrates, with the same name, pomp, and ornaments, but with just as much power as he thought fit to leave them. They were to have no military power, but only their jurisdiction of deciding finally all causes, except such as were capital; and though some of these last were left to the governor of Rome, yet the chief he reserved for himself. He paid great court to the people: the very name that covered his usurpation was a compliment to them; for he affected to call it the power of the tribuneship, though he acted as absolutely by it as if he had called it the dictatorial power. He likewise won the hearts of the populace by cheapness of provisions and plentiful markets; he frequently entertained them with shows and sports; and by these means kept them in good humour, and made them forget usurpation, slavery, and every public evil; people of ease and plenty being under no temptation of inquiring into the title of their prince, or resenting acts of power which they do not immediately feel.

As for the senate, he filled it with his own creatures, raising the number of the conscript fathers to 1000. He supplied several poor senators with money out of the treasury to discharge the public offices, and, on all occasions, affected a high regard for that venerable body; but at the same time divested them of all power, and reduced them to mere cyphers. To prevent them from raising new disturbances in the distant provinces, he issued an edict, forbidding any senator to travel out of Italy without leave, except such as had lands in Sicily or Narbonne Gaul, which, at that time comprehended Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiny. To these provinces, which were near Italy, and in a perfect state of tranquillity, they had full liberty to retire when they pleased, and live there upon their estates. Before he ended his sixth consulship he took a census of the people, which was 41 years after the last; and in this the number of men fit to bear arms amounted to 463,000, the greatest that ever had been found before. He likewise celebrated the games which had been decreed by the senate for his victory at Actium; and it was ordered that they should be celebrated every fifth year, four colleges of priests being appointed to take care of them; to wit, the pontifices, the augurs, the septemvirs, and quindecemvirs. The more to gain the affections of the people, he annulled, by one edict, the many severe and unjust laws which had been enacted during the triumvirate. He raised many public buildings, repaired the old ones, and added many stately ornaments to the city, which, at this time, was, if we may give credit to some antient writers,

about 50 miles in compass, and contained near 4,000,000 of souls, reckoning men, women, children, and slaves. He attended business, reformed abuses, shewed great regard for the Roman name, procured public abundance, peace, and [illegible] on appearing in person at the public diversions, and, in all things, studying to render himself dear to the populace.

And now Octavius, entering upon his seventh consulship with M. Agrippa for his fellow consul, and finding all things ripe for his design, the people being highly pleased with his mild government, and the senate filled with his creatures, whose fortunes depended upon his holding the power he had usurped, went, by the advice of Agrippa and Maecenas, to the senate-house; and there, in a studied speech, offered to resign his authority, and put all again into the hands of the people, upon the old foundation of the commonwealth; being well apprised that the greater part of the conscript fathers, whose interests were interwoven with his, would unanimously press him to the contrary: which happened accordingly; for they not only interrupted him while he was speaking, but, after he had done, unanimously besought him to take upon himself alone the whole government of the Roman empire. He, with a seeming reluctance, yielded at last to their request, as if he had been compelled to accept of the sovereignty. By this artifice he compassed his design, which was, to get the power and authority which he had usurped, confirmed to him by the senate and people for the space of 10 years: for he would not accept of it for a longer term, pretending that he should, in that time, be able to settle all things in such peace and order, that there would be no further need of his authority, that he might then ease himself of the burden, and put the government again into the hands of the senate and people. This method he took to render the yoke less heavy; but with a design to renew his lease, if we may be allowed the expression, as soon as the 10 years were expired: which he did accordingly, from 10 years to 10 years, as long as he lived, all the while governing the whole Roman empire with an absolute and uncontrouled power.

With this new authority the senate resolved to distinguish him with a new name. Some of the conscript fathers proposed the name of Romulus, thereby to insinuate that he was another founder of Rome; others offered other titles: but the venerable name of Augustus, proposed by Manucius Plancos, seemed preferable to all the rest, as it expressed more dignity and reverence than authority, the most sacred things such as temples, and places consecrated by augurs, being termed by the Romans Augusta. Octavius himself was inclined to the name of Romulus; but fearing he should be suspected of affecting the kingdom, he declined it, and took that of Augustus, by which we shall henceforth distinguish him.

Though the whole power of senate and people was now vested in Augustus, yet, that he might seem to share it with the conscript fathers, he refused to govern all the provinces; assigning to the senate such as were quiet and peaceable; and keeping to himself those which, bordering upon barbarous nations, were most exposed to troubles and wars, saying, he desired the fathers might enjoy their power with ease and safety, while he underwent all the dangers and labours: but, by this politic conduct, he secured all the mili-

tary power to himself; the troops lying in the provinces he had chosen; and the others which were governed by the senate being quite destitute of forces. The latter were called senatorial, and the former imperial, provinces. Over the provinces of both sorts were set men of distinction, to wit, such as had been consuls or prætors, with the titles of proconsul and propræstor: but the government of Egypt was committed to a private knight. Augustus fearing lest a person of rank, depending upon the wealth and situation of that country, might raise new disturbances in the empire. All these governors held their employment only for a year, and were, upon the arrival of their successors, to depart their provinces immediately, and not fail to be at Rome within three months at the farthest. This division of the provinces was made, according to Ovid, on the ides of January; whereas he was vested by the senate and people with the sovereign power on the seventh of the ides of the same month, as is manifest from the Narbonne marbles; and from that time many writers date the years of his empire. Thus ended the greatest commonwealth, and, at the same time, began the greatest monarchy, that had ever been known; a monarchy which infinitely excelled in power, riches, extent, and continuance, all the empires which had preceded it.

CHAPTER III.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE----------*From the accession of Augustus till the destruction of the Western empire, by Odoacer, king of the Heruli.*

THE Roman empire comprehended the greatest, and by far the best part of Europe, Asia, and Africa, being near 4000 miles in length, and about half as much in breadth. As to the yearly revenues of the empire, they have, by a moderate computation, been reckoned to amount to 40,000,000*l.* of our money. But the Romans themselves now ran headlong into all manner of luxury and effeminacy. The people were become a mere mob; those who were accustomed to direct mighty wars, to raise and depose great kings, to bestow or take away potent empires, were so sunk and debauched, that if they had but bread and shows, their ambition went no higher. The nobility were indeed more polite than in former ages; but at the same time idle, venal, vicious, insensible of private virtue, utter strangers to public glory or disgrace, void of zeal for the welfare of their country, and solely intent on gaining the favour of the emperor, as knowing that certain wealth and preferment were the rewards of ready submission, acquiescence, and flattery. No wonder, therefore, that they lost their liberty, without being ever again able to retrieve it.

Augustus, now absolute master of the Roman empire, took all methods to ingratiate himself with his soldiers, by whose means he had attained such a height of power. With this view he dispersed them through different parts of Italy, in 28 colonies, that he might the more easily re-assemble them on proper occasions. He kept 25 legions constantly on foot, 17 of which were in Europe; viz. eight on the Rhine, four on the Danube, three in Spain, and two in Dalmatia. The other eight were in Asia and Africa; four of them being quartered in the neighbourhood of the Euphrates, two in Egypt, and two in Africa Propria, that is, the antient dominions of Carthage. All these forces, amounting to 170,650 men, were constantly kept on foot by the Roman emperors for several ages. In the neighbourhood were always quartered 12 cohorts, that is about 10,000 men, nine of which were called prætorian cohorts: the other three city cohorts. These were established as a guard to the emperor, and to maintain peace and tranquillity in the city, but had often a great share in the disturbances which took place throughout the empire. Besides these, Augustus constantly kept at sea two powerful navies; the one riding at anchor near Ravenna, in the Adriatic sea, to command Dalmatia, Greece, Cyprus, and the rest of the eastern provinces; the other at Misenum, in the Mediterranean, to keep in awe the western parts of the empire. They were likewise to keep the seas clear of pirates, to convey the vessels which brought to Rome the annual tributes from the provinces beyond sea, and to transport corn and other provisions necessary for the relief and subsistence of the city. As to the civil government, Augustus enacted several new laws, and reformed some of the old ones: however, he affected to do nothing without

the advice of the senate; who were so well pleased with the complaisance shewed them on all occasions, that to the rest of his titles they added that of Pater Patriæ, or Father of his Country.

And now Augustus having settled all things with regard to the civil and military establishments of the empire, turned his arms against the Spanish nations, called the Cantabrians and Astorians, who had never been fully subdued. The war, however, terminated as usual in favour of the Romans; and these brave nations were forced to receive the yoke, though not without the most violent resistance on their part, and the utmost difficulty on that of the Romans. By this and his other conquests the name of Augustus became so celebrated that his friendship was courted by the most distant monarchs. Phrahates, king of Parthia, consented to a treaty with him upon his own terms, and gave him four of his own sons with their wives and children as hostages for the performance of the articles; and as a further instance of his respect, he delivered up the Roman eagles and other ensigns which had been taken from Crassus at the battle of Carrhæ. He received also an embassy from the king of India, with a letter written in the Greek tongue, in which the Indian monarch informed him, that "though he reigned over "600 kings, he had such a value for the friendship of Augustus, that he had sent this "embassy on so long a journey, on purpose to desire it of him; that he was ready to "meet him at whatsoever place he pleased to appoint; and that, upon the first notice, "he was ready to assist him in whatever was right." This letter he subscribed by the name of Porus king of India. Of the ambassadors who were set out from India, three only reached the presence of Augustus, who was at that time in the island of Samos, the others dying by the way. Of the three survivors, one was named Zarmar, a gymnosophist, who followed the emperor to Athens, and there burnt himself in his presence; it being customary for the gymnosophists to put an end to their lives in this manner, when they thought they had lived long enough, or apprehended some misfortune. Soon after this the Roman dominions were extended southward over the Garamantes, a people whose country reached as far as the river Niger. All this time the emperor continued to make new regulations for the good of the state; and, among other things, caused the Sibylline oracles to be reviewed. Many of these he rejected; but such as were reckoned authentic, he caused to be copied by the pontifices themselves, and lodged them in golden cabinets, which he placed in the temple of Apollo, built by him in his palace.

The Roman empire had now extended itself so far, that it seemed to have arrived at the limits prescribed to it by nature; and, as soon as this was the case, it began to be attacked by those nations which, in process of time, were to overthrow it. The Germans, by which name the Romans confounded a great number of nations dwelling in the northern parts of Europe, began to make incursions into Gaul. Their first attempt happened in the year 17 B. C. when they at first gained an inconsiderable advantage, but were soon driven back with great loss. Soon after this the Rhœti, who seem to have inhabited the country bordering on the lake of Constance, invaded Italy, where they committed dreadful devastations, putting all the males to the sword without distinc-

tion of rank or age; nay, we are told, that when women with child happened to fall into their hands, they consulted the augurs whether the child was male or female; and if they pronounced it a male, the mother was immediately massacred. Against these barbarians Augustus sent Drusus, the second son of the empress Livia; who, though very young, found means to gain a complete victory, with very little loss on his part.

Those who escaped took the road to Gaul, being joined by the Vindelici, another nation in the neighbourhood; but Tiberius, the elder brother of Drusus, marched against them, and overthrew them so completely, that the Rhœti, Vindelici, and Norici, three of the most barbarous nations in those parts, were fain to submit to the pleasure of the emperor. To keep their country in awe, Tiberius planted two colonies in Vindelicia, opening a road from thence into Noricum and Rhœtia. One of the cities which he built for the defence of his colonies was called Drysomagus; the other Augusta Vindelicorum; both of which are now known by the names of Nimenghen and Ausburg.

The remaining part of the life of Augustus was spent with so strict a regard to justice and the interests of his country, that it was observed after his decease, that it had been well for mankind if he had never been born, or if he had never died. Tiberius, who succeeded him in the empire, had the beginning of his reign disturbed by the mutiny of the German and Pannonian legions. This revolt was, however, at last quelled by Germanicus, an humane and valiant prince, who performed many considerable exploits against the northern barbarians. In the year 19 he died by poison, as was supposed, given by Piso, his partner in the government of Syria, to which Germanicus had been promoted after his return from the north.

In the mean time Tiberius, though he affected to court the favour of the people by various methods, yet shewed himself, in general, such a cruel and blood-thirsty tyrant, that he became the object of universal abhorrence. Though he had hated Germanicus in his heart, yet he punished Piso with death; but in about a year after the death of Germanicus, having now no object of jealousy to keep him in awe, he began to pull off the mask, and appear more in his natural character than before. He took upon himself the interpretation of all political measures, and began daily to diminish the authority of the senate, which design was much facilitated by their own aptitude to slavery; so that he despised their meanness while he enjoyed its effects. A law at that time subsisted, which made it treason to form any injurious attempt against the majesty of the people. Tiberius assumed to himself the interpretation and enforcement of this law; and extended it not only to the cases which really affected the safety of the state, but to every conjuncture that could possibly be favourable to his hatred or suspicions. All freedom was now, therefore, banished from convivial meetings, and diffidence reigned amongst the dearest relations. The law of offended majesty being revived, many persons of distinction fell a sacrifice to it.

In the beginning of these cruelties, Tiberius took into his confidence Sejanus, a Roman knight, but by birth a Volscian, who found out the method of gaining his confidence by the most refined degree of dissimulation, being an over-match for his master in his own arts. He was made by the emperor captain of the Prætorian guards, one of the most

confidential trusts in the state, and extolled in the senate as a worthy associate in his labours. The servile senators, with ready adulation, set up the statues of the favourite beside those of Tiberius, and seemed eager to pay him similar honours. It is not well known whether he was the adviser of all the cruelties that ensued soon after, but certain it is that, from the beginning of his ministry, Tiberius seemed to become more fatally suspicious.

It was from such humble beginnings that this minister even ventured to aspire at the throne, and was resolved to make the emperor's foolish confidence one of the first steps to his ruin. However he considered that cutting off Tiberius would rather retard than promote his designs while his son Drusus and the children of Germanicus were yet remaining. He therefore began by corrupting Livia, the wife of Drusus; whom, after having debauched her, he prevailed upon to poison her husband. This was effected by means of a slow poison, as we are told, which gave his death the appearance of a casual distemper. Tiberius, in the mean time, either naturally phlegmatic, or at least not much regarding his son, bore his death with great tranquillity.

Sejanus, having succeeded in this, was resolved to make his next attempt upon the children of Germanicus, who were undoubted successors to the empire. However he was frustrated in his designs, both with regard to the fidelity of their governors, and the chastity of Agrippina their mother. Whereupon he resolved upon changing his aims, and removing Tiberius out of the city; by which means he effected more frequent opportunities of putting his designs into execution. He therefore used all his address to persuade Tiberius to retire to some agreeable retreat remote from Rome. By this he expected many advantages, since there could be no access to the emperor but by him. Thus all letters being conveyed to the prince by soldiers at his own devotion, they would pass through his hands; by which means he must, in time, become the sole governor of the empire, and at last be in a capacity of removing all obstacles to his ambition. He now, therefore, began to insinuate to Tiberius the great and numerous inconveniencies of the city, the fatigues of attending the senate, and the seditious temper of the interior citizens of Rome. Tiberius, either prevailed upon by his persuasions, or pursuing the natural turn of his temper, which led to indolence and debauchery, in the 12th year of his reign left Rome, and went into Campania, under pretence of dedicating temples to Jupiter and Augustus. After this, though he removed to several places, he never returned to Rome; but spent the greatest part of his time in the island of Capreæ, a place which was rendered as infamous by his pleasures, as detestable by his cruelties, which were shocking to human nature. Buried in this retreat, he gave himself up to his pleasures, quite regardless of the miseries of his subjects.

Secret spies and informers were placed in all parts of the city, who converted the most harmless actions into subjects of offence. If any person of merit testified any concern for the glory of the empire, it was immediately constructed into a design to obtain it. If another spoke with regret of former liberty, he was supposed to aim at re-establishing the commonwealth. Every action became liable to forced interpretations; joy expressed a hope of the prince's death; melancholy an envying of his posterity. Séja-

nus found his aim every day succeeding; the wretched emperor's terrors were an instrument that he wrought upon at his pleasure, and by which he levelled every obstacle to his designs. But the chief objects of his jealousy were the children of Germanicus, whom he resolved to put out of the way. He therefore continued to render them obnoxious to the emperor, to alarm him with false reports of their ambition, and to terrify them with alarms of his intended cruelty. By these means he so contrived to widen the breach, that he actually produced, on both sides, those dispositions which he pretended to obviate; till at length the two princes, Nero and Drusus, were declared enemies to the state, and afterwards starved to death in prison; while Agrippina, their mother, was sent into banishment.

In this manner Sejanus proceeded, removing all who stood between him and the empire, and every day increasing in confidence with Tiberius, and power with the senate. The number of his statues exceeded even those of the emperor; people swore by his fortune in the same manner as they would have done had he been actually upon the throne, and he was dreaded more than even the tyrant who actually enjoyed the empire. But the rapidity of his rise seemed only preparatory to the greatness of his downfal. All we know of his first disgrace with the emperor is, that Satrius Secundus was the man who had the boldness to accuse him. Antonia, the mother of Germanicus, seconded the accusation. What were the particulars of his crimes we cannot learn; but certain it is that he attempted to usurp the empire by aiming at the life of Tiberius. He was very near dispatching him, when his practices were discovered, and his own life was substituted for that against which he aimed. Tiberius, sensible of the traitor's power, proceeded with his usual dissimulation in having him apprehended. He granted him new honours at the very time he resolved his death, and took him as his colleague in the consulship. The emperor's letter to the senate began only with slight complaints against his friend, but ended in an order for putting him in prison. He intreated the senators to protect a poor old man, as he was abandoned by all; and, in the mean time, prepared ships for his flight, and ordered soldiers for his security. The senate, who had long been jealous of the favourite's power, and dreaded his cruelty, immediately took this opportunity of going beyond their orders. Instead of sentencing him to imprisonment they directed his execution. A strange revolution now appeared in the city; of those numbers that, but a moment before, were pressing into the presence of Sejanus with offers of service and adulation, not one was found that would seem to be of his acquaintance: he was deserted by all; and those who formerly received the greatest benefits from him seemed now converted into his most inveterate enemies. As he was conducting to execution, the people loaded him with insult and execration. He attempted to hide his face with his hands, but even this was denied him, and his hands were secured. Nor did the rage of his enemies subside with his death; his body was ignominiously dragged about the streets, and his whole family executed with him.

His death only lighted up the emperor's rage for farther executions. Plancina, the wife of Piso, and others were executed for being attached to Sejanus. He began to grow weary of single executions, and gave orders that all the accused should be put to

death together, without farther examination. The whole city was filled with slaughter and mourning. When one Carnulius killed himself to avoid the torture, "Ah," cried Tiberius, "how was that man able to escape me!" When a prisoner earnestly entreated that he would not defer his death; "Know" said the tyrant, "I am not sufficiently "your friend, to shorten your torments."

In this manner he lived odious to the world and troublesome to himself; an enemy to the lives of others, a tormentor of his own. At length, in the 22nd year of his reign, he began to feel the approaches of his dissolution, and that all his appetites totally forsook him. He now, therefore, found it was time to think of a successor, and fixed upon Caligula; willing, perhaps, by the enormity of Caligula's conduct, with which he was well acquainted, to cover the memory of his own.

Still, however, he seemed willing to avoid his end; and strove, by change of place, to put off the inquietude of his own reflections. He left his favourite island, and went upon the continent; and, at last, fixed on the promontory of Misenum. It was there that he fell into faintings, which all believed to be fatal. Caligula, supposing him actually dead, caused himself to be acknowledged by the prætorian soldiers, and went forth from the emperor's apartment amidst the applauses of the multitude; when all of a sudden he was informed that the emperor was likely to recover. This unexpected account filled the whole court with terror and alarm; every one who had before been earnest in testifying their joy, now re-assumed their pretended sorrow, and forsook the new emperor, through a feigned solicitude for the fate of the old. Caligula seemed thunderstruck, he preserved a gloomy silence, expecting nothing but death instead of the empire to which he had aspired. Macro, however, who was hardened in crimes, ordered that the dying emperor should be dispatched by smothering him with pillows, or, as some will have it, by poison. Thus Tiberius died, in the 78th year of his age, after reigning 22 years.

The Romans were at this time arrived at their highest pitch of effeminacy and vice. The wealth of almost every nation in the empire, having, for some time, circulated through the city, brought with it the luxuries peculiar to each country; so that Rome presented a detestable picture of various pollutions. In this reign lived Apicius, so well known for having reduced gluttony into a system; some of the most notorious in this way thought it no shame to give 100 pounds for a single fish, and exhaust a fortune of 50,000 pounds in one entertainment. Debaucheries of every other kind kept pace with this; while the detestable folly of the times thought it was refining upon pleasure to make it unnatural. There were at Rome men called spintriæ, whose sole trade it was to study new modes of pleasure; and these were universally favourites of the great. The senators were long fallen from their authority, and were no less estranged from their integrity and honour. Their whole study seemed to be how to invent new ways of flattering the emperor, and various methods of tormenting his supposed enemies. The people were still more corrupt, they had for some years been accustomed to live in idleness, upon the donation of the emperor; and, being satisfied with subsistence, entirely gave up their freedom. Too effeminate and cowardly to go to war, they only railed against their governors; so that they were bad soldiers and seditious citizens.

The enormities of Caligula were concealed at the beginning of his reign. In less than eight months every appearance of moderation and clemency vanished; while furious passions, unexampled avarice, and capricious cruelty, began to take their turn in his mind. Pride, impiety, lust, avarice, all in the extreme, were every moment brought forward.

He assumed divine honours, and gave himself the names of such divinities as he thought most agreeable to his nature. For this purpose he caused the heads of the statues of Jupiter and some other gods to be struck off, and his own to be put in their places. He even built and dedicated a temple to his own divinity, in which his statue of gold was every day dressed in similar robes to those which he himself wore, and was worshipped by crouds of adorers. His priests were very numerous; the sacrifices made to him were of the most exquisite delicacies that could be procured; and the dignity of the priesthood was sought by the most opulent men of the city. However he admitted his wife and his horse to that honour; and, to give a finishing stroke to his absurdities, he became a priest to himself. The manner in which he maintained his horse will give some idea of his domestic extravagance. He built a stable of marble, and a manger of ivory; and whenever the animal, which he called Incitatus, was to run, he placed centinels near its stable the night preceding, to prevent its slumbers from being broken. He appointed it a house, furniture, and kitchen, in order to treat all its visitors with proper respect. The emperor sometimes invited Incitatus to his own table, presented it with gilt oats, and wine in a golden cup. He would often swear by the safety of his horse; and it is said he would have appointed it to the consulship, had not his death prevented. His impiety was but subordinate to his cruelties. He slew many of the senate, and afterwards cited them to appear, as if they had killed themselves. He cast great numbers of old and infirm men to wild beasts, to free the state from such unserviceable citizens. He usually fed his wild beasts with the bodies of those wretches which he condemned, and every tenth day sent off numbers of them to be thus devoured; which he jocosely called clearing his accounts.

He was assassinated by Cassius Chærea, tribune of the prætorian bands, in the 29th year of his age, after a short reign of not four years. It will be unnecessary to add any thing more to his character than the words of Seneca; namely, "Nature seemed to have "brought him forth to show what was possible to be produced from the greatest vice, "supported by the greatest authority."

His successor Claudius, in the beginning of his reign, gave the highest hopes of a happy continuance; but he soon began to lessen his care for the public, and to commit to his favourites all the concerns of the empire. This prince, weak from his infancy, was little able, when called to govern, to act, but under the direction of others. One of his chief instructors was his wife Messalina; whose name is become a common appellation for women of abandoned characters. By her was Claudius urged on to commit cruelties, which he considered only as wholesome severities, while her debaucheries became every day more notorious, and exceeded what had ever been known in Rome.

For her crimes and enormities, however, she, together with her paramour, Caius Silius, suffered that death they had so justly deserved.

Claudius took for his second wife Agrippina, the daughter of his brother Germanicus, a woman of a cruel and ambitious spirit, whose whole aim being to procure the succession for Nero, her son by a former marriage, treated Claudius with great haughtiness, and, after having taken her measures, removed him by slow poison.

Nero, though but 17 years old, began his reign with the general approbation of mankind. He appeared liberal, just, and humane. When a warrant for the execution of a criminal was brought him to be signed, he cried out with compassion, "Would to "heaven that I had never learned to write!"

But as he increased in years his progress in wickedness increased in proportion. The execution of his mother, Agrippina, was the first alarming instance he gave of his cruelty. The mounds of virtue being thus broken down, Nero gave a loose to the appetites that were not only sordid but inhuman. There was a sort of odd contrast in his disposition; for while he practised cruelties sufficient to make the mind shudder with horror, he was fond of those amusing arts which soften and refine the heart. He was particularly addicted, even from childhood, to music, and not totally ignorant of poetry; chariot-driving was his favourite pursuit; and all these he frequently exhibited in public.

In the 11th year of the reign of this abominable emperor a great part of the city of Rome was consumed by fire. In such general detestation was Nero held, that this calamity is attributed to his immediate command. However it is certain, that pretending compassion for the multitude, who were thus bereft of their dwellings, he caused tabernacles to be erected for their reception, and provided them with a large supply of furniture and of food. Upon the ruins of the demolished city, Nero founded a palace, which he called his golden house; though it was not so much admired on account of an immense profusion of gold, precious stones, and other inestimable ornaments, as for its vast extent, containing spacious fields, large wildernesses, artificial lakes, thick woods, orchards, vineyards, hills, groves, &c.

The ground that was not taken up by the foundations of Nero's own palace, he assigned for houses, which were not placed, as after the burning of the city by the Gauls, at random, and without order; but the streets were laid out regularly, spacious, and straight; the edifices were restrained to a certain height, perhaps of 70 feet, according to the plan of Augustus; the courts were widened; and to all the great houses which stood by themselves, and were called isles, porticos were added, which Nero engaged to raise at his own expence, and to deliver to each proprietor the squares about them clear from all rubbish. He likewise promised rewards according to every man's rank and substance, and fixed a day for the performance of his promise; on condition, that against that day their several houses and palaces were finished. He moreover made the following wise regulations, to obviate such a dreadful calamity for the future; to wit, That the new buildings should be raised to a certain height without timber, that they should

be arched with stone from the quarries of Gabii and Alba, which were proof against fire; that over the common springs, which were diverted by private men for their own uses, overseers should be placed to prevent that abuse; that every citizen should have ready in his own house, some machine proper to extinguish the fire; that no wall should be common to two houses, but every one be inclosed within its own peculiar walls, &c. Thus the city, in a short time, rose out of its ashes with new lustre, and more beautiful than ever.

Nothing could be more dreadful than the persecution which Nero raised against the Christians, under the pretence that they were the incendiaries who had destroyed the city. Some were covered with the skins of wild beasts, and in that resemblance devoured by dogs. Some were crucified, and others burnt alive. Paul and Peter are said, both of them to have perished on this occasion. At length human nature grew weary of bearing her persecutor, and the whole world seemed to rouze, as if by common consent, to rid the earth of a monster.

Sergius Galba, at that time governor of Spain, was remarkable for wisdom in peace, and courage in war; but as all talents, under corrupt princes, are dangerous, he, for some years, had seemed willing to court obscurity and an inactive life. Willing, however, to rid his country of this monster, he accepted the invitation of Vindex, to march with an army towards Rome. From the moment he declared against Nero, the tyrant considered himself as fallen. He received the account as he was at supper, and, instantly struck with terror, overturned the table with his foot, breaking two crystal vases of immense value. He fell into a swoon, and there tore his clothes, and struck his head, crying out, That he was utterly undone. He now called for the assistance of Locusta, a woman famous in the art of poisoning, to furnish him with the means of death: but being prevented in this, and the revolt becoming general, he went in person, from house to house, but the doors were shut against him. Being reduced to a state of desperation, he desired that one of his favourite gladiators might dispatch him, but even in this request not one would obey. "Alas!" cried he, "have I neither friend nor "enemy?" And then running desperately forth, seemed resolved to plunge headlong into the Tiber. But his courage failing him, he made a sudden stop, as if willing to re-collect his reason; and asked for some secret place where he might re-assume his courage, and meet death with becoming fortitude. In this distress, Phaon, one of his freedmen, offered him his country-house, about four miles distant, where he might, for some time, remain concealed. Nero accepted the offer; and, with his head covered, hiding his face with his handkerchief, he mounted on horseback, attended by four of his domestics, of whom the wretched Sporus was one. His journey, though short, was crouded with adventures. An earthquake gave him the first alarm. The lightning from heaven next flashed in his face. Round him he heard nothing but confused noises from the camp, and the cries of the soldiers, imprecating a thousand evils upon his head. A passenger meeting him on the way, cried, "Those men are in pursuit of Nero." Another asked him if there was any news of Nero in the city. His horse taking fright at a dead body that lay near the road, he dropped his handkerchief: when a soldier

addressing him by name, he quitted his horse, and forsaking the highway, entered into a thicket that led towards the back part of Phaon's house, through which he crept, making the best of his way through the reeds and brambles, with which the place was overgrown. During this interval the senate, finding the prætorian guards had taken part with Galba, declared him emperor, and condemned Nero to die, according to the rigour of the antient laws. When he was told of the resolution of the senate, he asked what was meant by being punished according to the rigour of the antient law? To this he was answered that the criminal was to be stripped naked, his head was to be fixed in a pillory, and in that posture he was to be scourged to death. Nero was so terrified at this that he had siezed two poniards which he had brought with him; but examining their points, returned them to their sheaths, pretending that the fatal moment was not yet arrived. He then desired Sporus to begin the lamentations which are used at funerals; he next entreated that some one of his attendants would die to give him courage by his example, and afterwards began to reproach his own cowardice, crying out, "Does this become Nero? Is "trifling thus well timed? No! let me be courageous!" In fact he had no time to spare; for the soldiers who had been in pursuit of him, were just then approaching the house; when, upon hearing the sound of the horses' feet, he set a dagger to his throat, with which, by the assistance of Epaphroditus, his freedman and secretary, he gave himself a mortal wound. However he was not yet dead, when one of the centurions entering the room, and pretending that he came to his relief, attempted to stop the blood with his cloak. But Nero regarding him with a stern countenance, said, "It is now "too late! Is this your fidelity?" Upon which, with his eyes fixed, and frightfully staring, he expired; exhibiting, even after death, a ghastly spectacle of innoxious tyranny. He reigned 13 years, seven months, and 28 days, and died in the 32nd year of his age.

The next 18 months must be divided into the reigns of three emperors, each of whom obtained the throne by the sword, and afterwards lost his life to make way for his successor. Galba was, while a private man, renowned for his virtues, but after his accession to the crown did not escape the charges of avarice and cruelty. Otho had looser principles, but gained considerable esteem by his clemency in pardoning the adherents of Galba. Vitellius was distinguished principally by his gluttony, which he supported by extortion practised on his subjects. After this series of civil commotions the empire enjoyed a return of tranquillity under the just government of Vespasian. He reigned 10 years with an excellent character, though not wholly free from the imputation of rapacity and avarice. At his decease, in the year 79, his son Titus was joyfully received as emperor, and began to reign with the practice of every virtue that became a sovereign and a man. During the life of his father there had been many imputations against him both for cruelty, lust, and prodigality; but upon his exaltation to the throne, he seemed entirely to take leave of his former vices, and became an example of the greatest moderation and humanity. The first step towards gaining the affections of his subjects, was the moderating his passions, and bridling his inclinations. He had long loved Berenice, sister of Agrippa, king of Judea, a woman of the greatest beauty and refined allurements: knowing that the connection with her was entirely disagreeable to the people of

Rome, he gained the victory over his affections and sent her away, notwithstanding their mutual passion, and the arts she used to induce him to change his resolutions. He next discarded those who had been the ministers of his pleasures, though he had formerly taken great pains in the selection. This moderation procured him the love of all good men, and the appellation of the Delight of Mankind; which all his actions seemed calculated to insure.

Titus took particular care to punish all informers, false witnesses, and promoters of dissension. Wretches who had their rise in the licentiousness and impunity of former reigns, were now become so numerous that their crimes called loudly for punishment. Of these he daily made public examples; condemning them to be scourged in the public streets, dragged through the theatre, and then banished into the uninhabited parts of the empire, or sold as slaves. His courtesy and readiness to do good have been celebrated even by christian writers; his principal rule being not to send away a petitioner dissatisfied. One night recollecting that he had done nothing beneficial to mankind during the day, he cried out "I have lost a day!" A sentence too remarkable not to be had in remembrance. His death which happened in the third year of his reign, is supposed to have been hastened by the treachery of his brother Domitian. Domitian was as much distinguished by arrogance, lewdness, ingratitude, and cruelty, as his two predecessors had been by their virtues. So mean and frivolous were his pursuits, and so strong was his inclination to inflict misery, that he usually spent his hours of retirement in catching flies, and sticking them through with a bodkin. His odious reign was terminated in the year 96, when he was stabbed by Stephanus, the comptroller of his household.

Nerva, his successor, was a mild and benevolent prince, whose greatest fault was his neglecting to punish his enemies and those of the state. He adopted Trajan, who is considered by many as having been the most excellent of all the Roman emperors. Having conquered the kingdom of Dacia and given peace and prosperity to the empire, Trajan was loved, honoured, and almost adored. He adorned the city with public buildings; he freed it from such men as lived by their vices; he entertained persons of merit with familiarity; and so little did he fear his enemies that he could scarcely be induced to suppose he had any.

It had been happy for this great prince's memory, had he shewn an equal clemency to all his subjects; but about the ninth year of his reign he was persuaded to look upon the Christians with a suspicious eye; and great numbers of them were put to death by popular tumults and judicial proceedings. However the persecution ceased after some time, for the emperor, having advice of the innocence and simplicity of the Christians, and of their inoffensive and moral way of living, he suspended their punishments.

He was succeeded, in the year 117, by his nephew Adrian. He began to pursue a course opposite to that of his predecessor, taking every method of declining war, and promoting the arts of peace. He was satisfied with preserving the antient limits of the empire, and seemed no way ambitious of extensive conquest.

He was scarcely settled on the throne when several of the northern barbarians began

to make devastations on the empire. These hardy nations, who now found the way to conquer by issuing from their forests and then retiring upon the approach of a superior force, began to be truly formidable to Rome. Adrian had thoughts of contracting the limits of the empire, by giving up some of the most remote and least defensible provinces; but in this he was over-ruled by his friends, who wrongly imagined that an extensive frontier would intimidate an invading enemy. But though he complied with their remonstrances he broke down the bridge over the Danube, which his predecessor had built, sensible that the same passage which was open to him, was equally convenient to the incursions of his barbarous neighbours.

He visited the most considerable provinces of the empire to gratify his curiosity and reform abuses. Like his predecessor he at one time persecuted the Christians, but at length formed a more favourable opinion of them.

Titus Antonius ascended the throne in the year 138. He was then above 50 years old, and had passed through many of the most important offices of the state with great integrity and application. His virtues in private life were no way impaired by exaltation, as he shewed himself one of the most excellent princes for justice, clemency, and moderation. His morals were so pure that he was usually compared to Numa, and was surnamed the Pious, both for his tenderness to his predecessor Adrian when dying, and his particular attachment to the religion of his country.

He left Marcus Aurelius sole successor to the throne, but he took Lucius Verus as his associate and equal in governing the state. Aurelius was the son of Amicus Verus, of an antient and illustrious family, which claimed its original from Numa. Lucius Verus was the son of Commodus, who had been adopted by Adrian, but died before he succeeded to the throne. Aurelius was as remarkable for his virtues and accomplishments, as his partner in the empire was for his ungovernable passions and debauched morals. The one was an example of the greatest goodness and wisdom, the other of ignorance, sloth, and extravagance.

Nothing could exceed the miserable state of the empire after the return of Verus from his Parthian expedition. In this horrid picture were represented an emperor, unawed by example or the calamities surrounding him, giving way to unheard of debaucheries; a raging pestilence spreading terror and desolation through all parts of the western world; earthquakes, famines, and inundations, such as had never before happened; the products of the earth throughout all Italy devoured by locusts; the barbarous nations around the empire taking advantage of its various calamities, and making their irruptions even into Italy itself. The priests doing all they could to put a stop to the miseries of the state by attempting to appease the gods; vowing and offering numberless sacrifices; celebrating all the sacred rites that had ever been known in Rome; and exhibiting the solemnity called Lectisternia (a kind of funeral banquets prepared for the gods) seven days together. To crown the whole, these enthusiasts, as if the impending calamities had not been sufficient, ascribed the distresses of the state to the impieties of the Christians; a violent persecution ensued in all parts of the empire; and Justin Martyr, Polycarp, and a prodigious number suffered martyrdom.

In this scene of universal tumult, desolation, and distress, there was nothing left but the virtues and the wisdom of one man to restore tranquillity, and bring back happiness to the empire. Aurelius began his endeavours by marching against the Marcomanni and Quadi, taking Verus with him, who reluctantly left the sensual delights of Rome for the fatigues of a camp. They came up with the Marcomanni near the city of Aquileia, and after a furious engagement routed their whole army; then pursuing them across the Alps, overcame them in several contests, and at last entirely defeating them, returned into Italy without any considerable loss. As the winter was far advanced, Verus was determined upon going to Rome; in which journey he was siezed with an apoplexy that put an end to his life, being 39 years old, having reigned in conjunction with Aurelius nine years.

Aurelius, who had hitherto sustained the fatigues of governing not only an empire but his colleague, began to act with greater diligence and more vigour than ever. After this subduing the Marcomanni, he returned to Rome, where he resumed his usual endeavours to benefit mankind by a farther reformation. The remainder of his reign was employed for the good of his people, and was terminated by his death in the year 180.

As after the death of Marcus Aurelius the Roman empire rapidly declined, it may not be improper to give some account of its military force at that period.

The numbers of the Roman armies are not easily calculated with any tolerable accuracy. We may compute, however, that the legion which consisted of 6831 Romans, might with its attendant auxiliaries, amount to 12,500 men. The peace establishment of Adrian and his successors were composed of no fewer than 30 of these formidable brigades; and most probably formed an army of 370,000 men. Instead of being confined within the walls of fortified cities, which the Romans considered as the refuge of weakness or pusillanimity, the legions were encamped on the banks of the great rivers, and along the frontiers of the barbarians. Three legions were encamped for Britain. The principal strength lay upon the Rhine and Danube, and consisted of 16 legions, disposed in the following proportions; two in the Lower, and three in the Upper Germany; one in Rhœtia; one in Noricum; four in Pannonia; three in Mœsia; and two in Dacia. The defence of the Euphrates was entrusted to eight legions, six of whom were placed in Syria, and the other two in Cappadocia. With regard to Egypt, Africa, and Spain, as they were far removed from any important scene of war, a single legion maintained the domestic tranquillity of each of those great provinces. Italy was defended by the city cohorts and prætorian guards formerly mentioned. These differed nothing from the legions in their arms and institutions, except in a more splendid appearance, and a less rigid discipline.

The Roman navy, though sufficient for every useful purpose of government, never seemed adequate to the greatness of the empire. The policy of the emperors was directed only to preserve the peaceful dominion of the Mediterranean sea, which was included within their dominions, and to protect the commerce of their subjects. Two permanent fleets were stationed by Augustus; one at Ravenna on the Adriatic, and the other at Misenum, in the bay of Naples. A very considerable force was also stationed

at Frejus in Provence; and the Euxine was guarded by 40 ships and 3000 soldiers. To all these we may add the fleet which preserved the communication between Gaul and Britain, and a great number of vessels constantly maintained on the Rhine and Danube, to harrass the enemy, or intercept the passage of the barbarians. The whole military establishment by sea and land, amounted to about 450,000 men.

The character of Commodus bears so near a resemblance to that of Domitian, that the reader might imagine he was going over the same reign. The chief circumstance that distinguishes Commodus from other dissolute and sanguinary tyrants, was his prodigious strength, which is said to have excelled that of any other person in the empire. He was assassinated, A. D. 192, with so great secrecy that few were acquainted with the real circumstances of his death.

Helvius Pertinax, whose virtues and courage rendered him worthy of the most exalted station, and who had passed through many changes of fortune, had been previously fixed upon to succeed him. When, therefore, the conspirators repaired to his house to salute him emperor, he considered it as a command from the emperor Commodus for his death. Upon Lætus entering his apartment, Pertinax, without any shew of fear, cried out, that for many days he had expected to end his life in that manner, wondering that the emperor had deferred it so long. He was not a little surprised when informed of the real cause of their visit; and being strongly urged to accept of the empire, he at last complied.

Nothing could exceed the justice and wisdom of this monarch's reign the short time it continued. But the prætorian soldiers, whose manners he had attempted to reform, having been long corrupted by the indulgence and profusion of their former monarch, began to hate him for the parsimony and discipline he had introduced among them. They therefore resolved to dethrone him; and accordingly, in a tumultuous manner, marched through the streets of Rome, entered his palace without opposition, where a Tungrian soldier struck him dead with a blow of his lance. From the number of his adventures he was called the tennis-ball of fortune; and certainly no man ever experienced such a variety of situations, with so blameless a character. He reigned but three months.

The soldiers, having committed this outrage, sold the empire to Didius, a celebrated lawyer, and the richest citizen in Rome. He appears to have been a weak rather than a wicked prince, but was dispatched by order of the senate, who had proclaimed Severus in his stead.

Severus, having overcome Niger and Albinus, who were his competitors for the empire, took the reins of government, uniting great vigour with the most refined policy; yet his African cunning was considered as a singular defect in him. He is celebrated for his wit, learning, and prudence; but execrated for his perfidy and cruelty. In short, he seemed equally capable of the greatest acts of virtue and the most bloody severities.

He loaded his soldiers with rewards and honours, giving them such privileges as strengthened his own power, while they destroyed that of the state. For the soldiers,

who had hitherto shewed the strongest inclination to an abuse of power, were now made arbiters of the fate of emperors.

He died at York, in the 66th year of his age, after an active though cruel reign of 18 years.

Caracalla and Geta, his sons, being acknowledged as emperors by the army, began to shew a mutual hatred to each other, even before their arrival at Rome. But this opposition was of no long continuance; for Caracalla, being resolved to govern alone, furiously entered Geta's apartment, and, followed by ruffians, slew him in his mother's arms.

Being thus emperor, he went on to mark his course with blood. Whatever was done by Domitian or Nero, fell short of this monster's barbarities. His tyrannies at length excited the resentment of Macrinus, the commander of the forces in Mesopotamia, who employed one Martial, a man of great strength, and a centurion of the guards, to dispatch him.

Macrinus was made emperor by the soldiers, but was cut off, after a reign of a year and two months, by the intrigues of Mosa and her grandson Heliogabalus; who was the natural child of Caracalla.

The senate and citizens of Rome being obliged to submit to the appointment of the army as usual, Heliogabalus ascended the throne at the age of 14. His short life was a mixture of effeminacy, lust, and extravagance. He married, in the short space of four years, six wives, and divorced them all. He was so fond of the sex, that he carried his mother with him to the senate-house, and demanded that she should always be present when matters of importance were debated. He even went so far as to build a senate-house for women, with suitable orders, habits, and distinctions, of which his mother was made president. They met several times; all their debates turning upon the fashions of the day, and the different formalities to be used at giving and receiving visits. To these follies he added cruelty and boundless prodigality; he used to say that such dishes as were cheaply obtained were scarce worth eating. It is even said he strove to foretel what was to happen by inspecting the entrails of young men sacrificed; and that he chose the most beautiful youths throughout his empire to be slain for that horrid purpose.

However his soldiers mutinying, as was now usual with them, they followed him to his palace, pursuing him from apartment to apartment, till at last he was found concealed in a privy. Having dragged him from thence through the streets with the most bitter invectives, and having dispatched him, they attempted once more to squeeze his pampered carcase into a privy; but not easily effecting this, they threw it into the Tiber, with heavy weights, that none might afterwards find or give it burial. This was the ignominious death of Heliogabalus, in the 18th year of his age, after a detestable reign of four years.

To him succeeded Alexander, his cousin-german, who, without opposition, being declared emperor, the senate, with their usual adulation, were for conferring new titles upon him; but he modestly declined them all. To the most rigid justice he added the

greatest humanity. He loved the good, and was a severe reprover of the lewd and infamous. His accomplishments were equal to his virtues. He was an excellent mathematician, geometrician, and musician; he was equally skilful in painting and sculpture; and in poetry few in his time could equal him. In short, such were his talents, and such the solidity of his judgment, that though but 16 years of age he was considered as a wise old man.

About the 13th year of his reign, the Upper Germans and other northern nations began to pour down immense swarms of people upon the more southern parts of the empire. They passed the Rhine and the Danube with such fury that all Italy was thrown into the most extreme consternation. The emperor, ever ready to expose his person for the safety of his people, made what levies he could, and went in person to stem the torrent; which he speedily effected. It was in the course of his successes against the enemy, that he was cut off by a mutiny among his own soldiers. He died in the 29th year of his age, after a prosperous reign of 13 years and nine days.

The tumults occasioned by the death of Alexander being appeased, Maximin, who had been the chief promoter of the sedition, was chosen emperor. This extraordinary man, whose character deserves particular attention, was born of very obscure parentage, being the son of a poor herdsman of Thrace. He followed his father's humble profession, and had exercised his personal courage against the robbers who infested that part of the country in which he lived. Soon after, his ambition increasing, he left his poor employment and enlisted in the Roman army, where he soon became remarkable for his great strength, discipline, and courage. This gigantic man, we are told, was eight feet and a half high; he had strength corresponding to his size, being not more remarkable for the magnitude than the symmetry of his person. His wife's bracelet usually served him for a thumb-ring, and his strength was so great that he was able to draw a carriage which two oxen could not move. He could strike out a horse's teeth with a blow of his fist, and break its thigh with a kick. His diet, it is said, was as extraordinary as his endowments; he generally ate 40 pounds weight of flesh every day, and drank six gallons of wine, without committing any debauch in either. With a frame so athletic he was possessed of a mind undaunted in danger, and neither fearing nor regarding any man. The first time he was made known to the emperor Severus, who was then celebrating games on the birth-day of his son Geta, he overcame 16 in running, one after the other: he then kept up with the emperor on horseback; and having fatigued him in the course, he was opposed to seven of the most active soldiers, and overcame them with the greatest ease. From that circumstance he was particularly noticed, had been taken into the emperor's body guard, and, by the usual gradation of preferment, came to be chief commander. He had been equally remarkable for his simplicity, discipline, and virtue; but upon coming to the empire, was found to be one of the greatest monsters of cruelty that had ever disgraced power; fearful of nothing himself he seemed to sport with the terrors of all mankind.

However his cruelties did not retard his military operations, which were carried on with a spirit becoming a better monarch. He overthrew the Germans in several battles,

wasted all their country with fire and sword for 400 miles together, and formed a resolution of subduing all the northern nations as far as the ocean. In these expeditions, in order to attach the soldiers more firmly to him, he increased their pay; and in every duty of the camp he himself took as much pains as the meanest centinel in his army, and shewed incredible courage and assiduity. In every engagement, where the conflict was hottest, Maximin was seen fighting in person, and destroying all before him; for being bred a barbarian he considered it as his duty to combat as a common soldier, while he commanded as a general.

In the mean time his cruelties had so alienated the minds of his subjects, that several conspiracies were secretly aimed against him. None of them, however, succeeded, till at last his own soldiers, being long harrassed by famine and fatigue, and hearing of revolts on every side, resolved to terminate their calamities by the tyrant's death. His great strength and his being always armed were at first the principal motives to deter any from assassinating him; but at length the soldiers, having made his guards accomplices in their design, set upon him while he slept at noon in his tent, and slew both him and his son, whom he had made his partner in the empire, without any opposition. Thus died this most remarkable man, after an usurpation of about three years, and in the 65th year of his age. His assiduity when in humble station, and his cruelty when in power, serve very well to evince that there are some men whose virtues are fitted for obscurity; as there are others who only shew themselves great when placed in an exalted station.

Pupienus and Balbinus were created emperors by the senate, but murdered by the prætorians. Gordian, who was advanced by the soldiers, was but 16 years old when he began his reign, but his virtues seemed to compensate for his want of experience. His principal aims were to unite the opposing members of government, and to reconcile the soldiers and citizens to each other. He was slain by the order of Philip, after a successful reign of near six years.

Philip was removed in a similar manner to make way for his successor Decius, whose activity and wisdom seemed in some measure to stop the hastening decline of the Roman empire. The senate seemed to think so highly of his merits that they voted him not inferior to Trajan; and indeed he seemed in every instance to consult their dignity and the welfare of all inferior ranks of people. But no virtues could now prevent the approaching downfal of the state; the obstinate disputes between the pagans and the Christians within the empire, and the unceasing irruptions of barbarous nations from without, enfeebled it beyond the power of remedy. He was killed in an ambuscade of the enemy, in the 50th year of his age, after a reign of about five years.

Gallus, who had betrayed the Roman army, had address enough to get himself declared emperor by that part of it which survived the defeat; he was 45 years old when he began to reign, and was descended from an honourable family in Rome. He was the first who bought a dishonourable peace from the enemies of the state, agreeing to pay a considerable annual tribute to the Goths, whom it was his duty to repress. He was regardless of every national calamity, and lost to debauchery and sensuality. The pagans were allowed a power of persecuting the Christians through all parts of the state. These

calamities were succeeded by a pestilence from heaven that seemed to have generally spread over the earth, and continued raging for several years in an unheard of manner; as well as by a civil war, which followed shortly after, between Gallus and his general Æmilianus, who having gained a victory over the Goths, was proclaimed emperor by his conquering army. Gallus, hearing this, soon roused from the intoxications of pleasure, and prepared to oppose his dangerous rival; he with his son was slain by Æmilianus, in a battle fought in Mesia. His death was merited, and his vices were such as to deserve the detestation of posterity. He died in the 47th year of his age, after an unhappy reign of two years and four months, in which the empire suffered inexpressible calamities.

The senate refused to acknowledge the claims of Æmilianus; and an army that was stationed near the Alps chose Valerian, who was their commander, to succeed to the throne. Valerian, being thus universally acknowledged as emperor, although arrived at the age of 70, set about reforming the state with a spirit that seemed to mark a good mind and unabated vigour. But reformation was then grown almost impracticable. The disputes between the Pagans and Christians divided the empire as before; a dreadful persecution of the latter ensued. The northern nations over-ran the Roman dominions in a more formidable manner than ever; and the empire began to be usurped by a multitude of petty leaders, each of whom, neglecting the general state, set up for himself. To add to these calamities, the Persians, under their king Sapor, invaded Syria; and coming into Mesopotamia, took the unfortunate Valerian prisoner, and retained him in captivity till his death.

When Valerian was taken prisoner, Galienus, his son, promising to revenge the insult, was chosen emperor, being then about 41 years old. However he soon discovered that he sought rather the splendours than the toils of empire; for after having overthrown Ingenuus, who had assumed the title of emperor, he sat down, as if fatigued with conquest, and gave himself up to ease and luxury. A great number of usurpers now pretended to the empire, and have been distinguished by the name of the 30 tyrants. However there were only 19; viz. Cyriades, Macrianus, Balista, Udenatus, and Zenobia in the east; in Gaul and the Western provinces, Posthumus, Lollianus, Victorinus, and his mother Victoria, Marius, and Tetricus; in Illyricum, and on the confines of the Danube, Igenuus, Regillianus, and Aureolus; in Pontus Saturninus; in Issuria, Trebellianus; in Thessaly, Piso; in Achaia, Valens; in Egypt, Æmilianus; and in Africa, Celsus.

The consequences of these numerous usurpations were the most fatal that can be conceived. The elections of these precarious emperors, their life and death, were equally destructive to their subjects and adherents. The price of their elevation was instantly paid to the troops by an immense donation, drawn from the exhausted people. However virtuous their character, and however pure their intentions might be; they found themselves reduced to the necessity of supporting their usurpation by frequent acts of rapine and cruelty. When they fell they involved armies and provinces in their fall. Whilst the forces of the state were dispersed in private quarrels, the defenceless provinces lay exposed to every invader. The bravest usurpers were compelled, by the per-

plexity of their situation, to conclude dishonourable treaties with the barbarians, and even to submit to shameful tributes, and introduce such numbers of barbarians into the Roman service as seemed sufficient at once to overthrow the empire.

A succession of able emperors, Claudius, Aurelian, Tacitus, and Probus, re-united the scattered fragments into which the Roman power had been divided, repressed the incursions of the barbarians, and contributed much to defer the approaching ruin of their country. The reigns of Carus, Numerian, and Carinus, comprehended the space of but about two years, and produced no very remarkable alterations.

Dioclesian was a person of mean birth; he received his name from Dioclea, the town in which he was born, and was about 40 years old when he was elected to the empire. He owed his exaltation entirely to his merit, having passed through all the gradations of office, with sagacity, courage, and success. In his time the northern hive, as it was called, poured down their swarms of barbarians upon the Roman empire. Ever at war with the Romans they issued forth, whenever the army that was to repress their invasions was called away; and upon its return they suddenly withdrew into their cold, barren, and inaccessible retreats, which themselves alone could endure. In this manner the Scythians, Goths, Sarmatians, Alani, Carsii, and Quadi came down in incredible numbers; while every defeat seemed but to increase their strength and perseverance; after gaining many victories over these, and in the midst of his triumphs, Dioclesian and Maximian, his partner in the empire, surprised the world by resigning their dignities on the same day, and both retiring into private stations. In this contented manner Dioclesian lived some time. He died either by poison or madness, but by which of them is uncertain. His reign of 20 years was active and useful; and his authority, which was tinctured with severity, was adapted to the depraved state of morals at that time.

Upon the resignation of the two emperors, the two Cæsars, whom they had before chosen, were universally acknowledged as their successors; namely Constantius Chlorus, so called from the paleness of his complexion, a man virtuous, valiant, and merciful; and Galerius, who was brave, but brutal, incontinent, and cruel. As there was such a disparity in their tempers, they readily agreed, upon coming into full power, to divide the empire. Constantius was appointed to govern the western parts. Constantius died in Britain, appointing Constantine, his son, as his successor. Galerius was seized with a very extraordinary disorder, which baffled the skill of his physicians, and carried him off.

Constantine, afterwards surnamed the Great, had some competitors at first for the throne. Among the rest was Maxentius, who was at that time in possession of Rome, and a stedfast assertor to paganism. It was in Constantine's march against that usurper, we are told, that he was converted to Christianity, by a very extraordinary appearance. One evening, the army being on its march towards Rome, Constantine was intent upon various considerations upon the fate of sublunary things, and the dangers of his approaching expedition. Sensible of his own incapacity to succeed without divine assistance, he employed his meditations upon the opinions that were then agitated among mankind, and sent up his ejaculations to heaven to inspire him with wisdom to choose the path he

should pursue. As the sun was declining there suddenly appeared a pillar of light in the heavens, in the fashion of a cross, with this inscription, IN THIS OVERCOME. So extraordinary an apppearance did not fail to create astonishment both in the emperor and his whole army, who reflected on it as their various dispositions led them to believe. Those who were attached to paganism, prompted by their aruspices, pronounced it to be a most inauspicious omen, portending the most unfortunate events; but it made a different impression on the emperor's mind; who, as the account goes, was further encouraged by visions the same night. He therefore, the day following, caused a royal standard to be made, like that which had been seen in the heavens, and commanded it to be carried before him in his wars, as an ensign of victory and celestial protection. After this he consulted with the principal teachers of christianity, and made a public avowal of that sacred persuasion.

When Constantine had overcome all his competitors, and become sole monarch of the empire, he resolved to establish Christianity on so sure a basis that no new revolutions should shake it; he commanded that in all the provinces of the empire the orders of the bishops should be exactly obeyed. He called also a general council of these, in order to repress the heresies that had already crept into the church, particularly that of Arius. To this council repaired about 318 bishops, besides a multitude of presbyters and deacons, together with the emperor himself: who all, except about 17, concurred in condemning the tenets of Arius, who, with his associates, was banished into a remote part of the empire.

The other most important transactions of Constantine were his removal of the seat of government to the newly erected city of Constantinople, and his dividing the empire among his three sons. Constantine, the emperor's eldest son, commanded in Gaul and the Western provinces; Constantius, his second son, governed Africa and Illyricum: and Constans, the youngest, ruled in Italy. This division of the empire still farther contributed to its own downfal; for the united strength of the state being no longer brought to repress invasion, the barbarians fought with superior numbers, and conquered at last, though often defeated. When Constantine was above 60 years old, and had reigned about 30, he found his health decline. His disorder which was an ague, increasing, he went to Nicomedia, where, finding himself without hopes of recovery, he caused himself to be baptized. He soon after received the sacrament and expired.

As Rome was at this time subject to Constantinople, we shall defer relating the various events which attended the succession of emperors, till we enter unto that part of our work to which it more properly belongs. It will be here sufficient to notice that the sovereign power was usually possessed by the weak, timorous, and voluptuous; the teachers of religion disgraced their characters, and distracted the empire by their projects of avarice and ambition; and the enemies of Rome, though frequently defeated, penetrated the frontiers in immense numbers, and filled all the Western provinces with desolation and blood.

In 416, Alaric, king of the Goths, twice besieged Rome, and at length by force or stratagem, made himself master of that city. The soldiers had free liberty to pillage all

places except the Christian churches. This dreadful desolation continued for three days; and unspeakable were the precious monuments, both of art and learning, that sunk under the fury of the conquerors. In 458, Genseric, king of the Vandals, contributed to destroy what Alaric had spared; his merciless soldiers, for 14 days together, ravaged, with implacable fury, in the midst of that venerable place. Neither private dwellings, nor public buildings, neither sex, nor age, nor religion, were the least protection against their lust or avarice.

At length the very name of Emperor of the West expired, upon the abdication of Augustulus; and Odoacer, general of the Heruli, assumed the title of King of all Italy. Such was the end of this great empire, that had conquered mankind with its arms, and instructed the world with its wisdom; that had risen by temperance, and that fell by luxury; that had been established by a spirit of patriotism, and that sunk into ruin when the empire was become so extensive that a Roman citizen was an empty name. Its final dissolution happened about 522 years after the battle of Pharsalia, 146 after the removal of the imperial seat to Constantinople, and 476 after the nativity of our Saviour.

CHAPTER IV.

The history of the several states which were founded on the ruins of the Roman empire, in the south-west of Europe, till the destruction of some of them by the Saracens, and the union of the others under the government of Charles the Great.

OF all the states that rose from the ruins of the Western empire, the French monarchy first claims our notice: not on account of its antiquity only, but because of its early and continued consequence. Gaul was shared by the Romans, the Visigoths, and the Burgundians, when Clovis, king of the Franks, son of Childeric, and grandson of Merovius, head of the Salian tribe, defeated Syagrius, a Roman usurper in that province, and established a new kingdom, to which he gave the name of France, or the land of Free Men.

Though Clovis was only 19 years of age when he obtained this victory, his prudence appears to have been equal to his valour. And many circumstances conspired to his farther aggrandizement. The Gauls hated the dominion of the Romans, and were strongly attached to Christianity: Clovis gained on their piety by favouring their bishops; and his marriage to Clotilda, niece to Gondeband, king of Burgundy, made them hope that he would speedily embrace the faith. The attachment of his countrymen to their antient worship was the sole objection: the pious exhortations of the queen had some effect; and the king, having vanquished the Allemanni at Tolbiac, near Cologne, after an obstinate engagement, politically ascribed that victory to the God of Clotilda, whom he said he had invoked during the time of battle, under promise of becoming a Christian, if crowned with success. He was accordingly baptized by St. Remigius, bishop of Reims, and almost the whole French nation followed his example.

This was a grand circumstance in favour of Clovis; and he did not fail to take advantage of it. The Gauls were staunch Catholics, but the Visigoths and Burgundians were Arians. Clotilda however happily was a Catholic, though nursed in the bosom of Arianism; and Clovis overflowed with zeal for the same faith, as soon as he found it would second his ambitious views. Under colour of religion he made war upon Alaric, king of the Visigoths, who possessed the country between the Rhone and the Loire; the Gallic clergy favoured his pretensions: and the battle of Vouille, in which the king of the Visigoths was vanquished, and slain near Poictiers, added to the kingdom of France the province of Aquitaine.

But Clovis, instead of enjoying his good fortune with dignity, disfigured the latter part of his reign by perfidies and cruelties towards the princes of his house, whom he extirpated. He died in 511, after attempting to atone for his crimes by building and endowing churches and monasteries, and assembling a council at Orleans for the regulation of church discipline.

The death of Clovis was a severe blow to the grandeur of the French monarchy; he left four sons, who divided his extensive dominions among them. Thierry, the eldest, had the largest share; he was king of Austrasia, or that part of the Oriental France which lies between the Rhine and the Meuse. Metz was his capital. Childebert was king of Paris, Clodomir of Orleans, and Clotaire of Soissons. The division of the empire of the Franks into four independent kingdoms not only weakened its force, but gave rise to endless broils. The brothers became enemies whenever their interests jarred. The most frightful barbarities were the consequence of their dissensions. Murders and assassinations grew common events.

As the experience of these evils did not prevent a like division taking place after the death of Clotaire, the sole successor of his brother and nephews, France was long torn by the most dreadful civil distractions. At length Clotaire II. became sole monarch. He re-established tranquillity, and gained the hearts of his people by his justice and generosity; he attached the nobility to him by augmenting their consequence. He committed the government of the provinces of Austrasia and Burgundy to the mayors of the palace as they were called; a kind of viceroys, who, daily acquiring power, at last made their way to the throne. One of the most distinguished of these noblemen was Pepin Heristel, who governed France 28 years with equal prudence and fortitude. The kings were now no more than decorated pageants, to be shewn to the people occasionally. The appellation of sluggards, which was given them aptly, expresses their stupid inactivity. After the death of Pepin, his natural son, Charles Martel, obtained the same degree of power which his father had enjoyed, and proved himself worthy of this high authority, not only by the tranquillity which he preserved at home, but by his effectual resistance to a powerful enemy that threatened the extinction of the Christian name.

This necessarily leads our attention to Spain, where the Visigoths founded their monarchy, in a province already over-run by the Vandals and Suevi. Here the clergy became soon possessed of more power than the prince. Almost all causes, both civil and ecclesiastical, were referred to the bench of bishops: they even decided in their councils the most weighty affairs of the nation. Along with the nobles, among whom they held the first rank, they often disposed of the crown, which was more elective than hereditary. The kingdom was one theatre of revolutions and crimes. The number of kings assassinated fills the soul with horror. The barbarians, after their establishment, contracted new vices: their ferocity became bloody.

A short sketch of their history will suffice. Leovigild, who died in 586, and who is so much celebrated for his victories over the Suevi, whom he entirely subdued, put to death his son Hermenegild, because he had embraced the catholic faith, he himself being an Arian. Recared, however, his other son and successor, abjured Arianism. The Arians were persecuted in their turn. The spirit of persecution daily increased. Sisebut, a prince in other respects wise, and whose valour dispossessed the Greek emperors of what territory they had continued to hold on the coasts of the Mediterranean, obliged the Jews, on pain of death, to receive baptism. In the reign of this monarch the empire

of the Visigoths was at its height; comprehending not only Spain, but also some neighbouring provinces of Gaul and part of Mauritania. Chintila, a subsequent king, banished all the Jews: and a council or assembly of divines, convoked during his reign, declared that no prince could ascend the Spanish throne without swearing to enforce all the laws enacted against that unfortunate people. Under the reign of Recesmint, the election of king was reserved by a council to the bishops and Palatines. These Palatines were the principal officers of the crown. Thus the Spanish nobility lost one of their most essential rights.

The debauchery, cruelty, and impiety of Witiza, whose wickedness knew no bounds, occasioned a civil war in 710. Roderic, or Roderigue, dethroned this prince, and was himself dethroned by a people whom nothing could withstand. These were the Saracens, who passed over from Barbary, and subdued most of the cities without difficulty, burning and pillaging such as opposed them. Oppas, archbishop of Seville, and uncle to the children of Witiza, was not ashamed, on this occasion, to join the Saracens; and sacrificed his country and his religion to his hatred against Roderic. But Pelagius, a prince of the royal blood, remained firm in his faith and his duty; and when he could no longer keep the field against the Infidels, he retired to the mountains of Asturias, followed by a number of faithful adherents. There he founded a Christian kingdom which he defended by his valour, and transmitted to his posterity.

Meanwhile the Saracens and Moors, little willing to confine their ambition within the limits of the Pyrenees, made an unsuccessful attack upon Eudes, duke of Aquitaine. But that check was soon forgot. Abdurrahman, the new Emir or governor of Spain, made a second irruption, with superior forces, and penetrated as far as Sens. Repelled there by bishop Ebbo, he fell upon Aquitaine, vanquished the duke, and advanced towards the heart of France. Charles Martel put a stop to his career between Poictiers and Tours, by a memorable battle, in which Abdurrahman himself was slain; and if we believe the historians of those times, the Saracens lost in this action above 300,000 men. But such exaggerations are fit only for romance.

Spain was very miserable under the dominion of the Moors, till Abdurrahman founded in Spain an independent kingdom, consisting of all those provinces which had been subject to the califfs. He fixed his residence at Cordova, which he made the seat of the arts, of magnificence, and of pleasure. Without persecuting the Christians, he was able, by his artful policy, almost to extinguish Christianity in his dominions; by depriving the bishops of the dioceses; by reserving all honours and offices for the followers of his prophet; and by promoting intermarriages between the Christians and the Mahometans. No prince in Europe equalled Abdurrahman in wisdom, nor any people the Arabs, in whatever tends to the aggrandizement of the human soul. Lately enemies to the sciences they now cultivated them with success, and enjoyed a considerable share both of learning and politeness, while the rest of mankind were sunk in ignorance and barbarism.

We must now cast an eye on Italy, Rome, and France, from the time of Charles Martel to that of Charles the Great. Italy experienced a variety of fortunes after it lost its

antient masters, before it fell into the hands of Charlemagne. It was first wholly conquered by the Heruli, a people from the extremity of the Euxine or Black sea, who held it only a short time, being expelled by the Ostrogoths. Theoderic, the first Gothic king of Italy, and several of his successors were princes of great prudence and humanity. They allowed the Italians, or Romans, as they still affected to be called, to retain their possessions, their laws, their religion, their own government, and their own magistrates, reserving only to the Goths the principal military employments. They acknowledged the emperors of Constantinople their superiors in rank, but not in jurisdiction. Ravenna was the seat of their court, and in real magnificence vied with antient Rome, as their equitable administration did with the reigns of Trajan and Antoninus. They were at last subdued by Belisarius, and Narses, the generals of Justinian, who having recovered Africa from the Vandals, had the pleasure of uniting Italy once more to the Roman, Eastern, or Greek empire; the Western empire, which took its rise as a separate state on the death of Theodosius in 395, being totally annihilated by Odoacer, king of the Heruli.

Soon after the expulsion of the Ostrogoths, great part of Italy was seized by Alboinus, king of the Lombards, a Gothic nation. He and his successors made Pavia the place of their residence. The government of Italy was now entirely changed. Alboinus established the feudal policy in those countries which he had conquered, settling the principal officers of his army under the name of duke, in the chief cities of every province. A similar kind of government prevailed in that part of Italy which remained subject to the emperors of Constantinople; the exarch, or supreme governor, who resided at Ravenna, appointing the dukes or chief magistrates of the other cities, and removing them at pleasure. Even Rome itself was governed by a duke, the very name of the senate and consuls being abolished.

Alboinus was one of the greatest princes of his time, and no less skilled in the science of reigning than in the art of war; but he was slain by the treachery of his wife Rosamond, before he had leisure to perfect the government of his kingdom. Clophis, his successor, was an able but barbarous prince. His cruelties gave the Lombards such an aversion against regal power, that they resolved, after his death, to change the form of government: accordingly, for the space of 12 years, they chose no other king, but lived subject to their dukes. These dukes had hitherto acknowledged the royal authority; but when the kingly power was abolished, each duke became sovereign of his own city and its district.

The Lombards, during that interregnum, extended their conquests in Italy. But being threatened by foreign enemies, they saw a necessity of a closer union; of restoring their antient form of government; and committing the management of the war to a single person.

For this purpose the heads of the nation assembled, and with one voice called Autharis, the son of Clophis to the throne. Autharis perfected that form of government which had been established by Alboinus. Sensible that the dukes, who had ruled their several districts, like independent princes, for so many years, would not willingly part with their

authority, he allowed them to continue in their governments, but reserved to himself the supreme jurisdiction, he made them contribute a part of their revenues toward the support of his royal dignity, and take an oath that they would assist him to the utmost of their power in time of war. After settling the government of his kingdom, he enacted several salutary laws for its tranquillity and good order. He was the first of the Lombard kings who embraced Christianity, and many of his subjects followed his example; but being of the Arian persuasion, like most of the northern conquerors, many disputes were, by that means, occasioned between the Arian and Catholic bishops; for the Romans, or native Italians, were then as staunch Catholics as at this day.

Liberty of conscience, however, was allowed under the Lombard kings; and Rotharis, who surpassed all his predecessors in wisdom and valour, was so moderate in his principles, and so indulgent to his people, that, during his reign, most cities of Italy had two bishops, one Catholic and one Arian. He was the first prince who gave written laws to the Lombards. For that purpose he summoned at Pavia a general diet of the nobles, and such regulations as they approved, he ordered to be digested into a code, and observed over all his dominions. His military talents were not inferior to his civil. He very much extended the limits of his kingdom, and gained so many advantages over the imperial forces, that no future hostilities passed between the exarchs and the kings of the Lombards, till the reign of Luitprand.

Luitprand gave strong proofs of his wisdom and valour from the moment he ascended the throne, but his great qualities were in some measure shaded by his boundless ambition. He took Ravenna from the emperor by storm, A. D. 728, and seemed in a fair way to become master of all Italy. But that conquest neither he nor any of his successors was ever able to complete; and the attempt proved fatal to the kingdom of the Lombards.

Though Rome was now governed by a duke, who depended on the exarch of Ravenna, the pope or bishop had the chief authority in that city. He was yet less conspicuous by his power than the respect which religion inspired for his see, and the confidence which was placed in his character. St. Gregory, who died in 604, had negotiated with princes upon several matters of state, and his successors divided their attention between clerical and political objects. To free themselves from the dominion of the Greek emperors without falling a prey to the king of Italy, was the great object of these ambitious prelates. In order to accomplish this important purpose they employed successfully both religion and intrigue; and at last established a spiritual and temporal monarchy, which of all human institutions perhaps most merits the attention of man, whether we consider its nature, its progress, or its prodigious consequences.

Gregory II. had offended the emperor Leo by opposing his edict against the worship of images: but he was more afraid of the growing power of the Lombards than of the emperor's threats; he therefore resolved to put a stop, if possible to the conquest of Luitprand. The only prince in Italy to whom he could have recourse was Ursus, duke of Venice, the Venetians making already no contemptible figure. Not less alarmed than Gregory at the progress of so powerful a neighbour, Ursus, and the Venetians

promised to assist the exarch (who had fled to them for protection) with the whole strength of the republic. They accordingly fitted out a considerable fleet, while the exarch conducted an army by land, and retook Ravenna before Luitprand could march to its relief.

As the recovery of Ravenna had been chiefly owing to the interposition of Gregory, he hoped to be able to prevail on the emperor to revoke his edict against the worship of images in the West. Leo, however, sensible that the pope had been influenced merely by his own interest in the measures he had taken relative to that event, was only more provoked at his obstinacy, and resolved that the edict should be obeyed even in Rome itself. For this purpose he recalled Scholasticus, exarch of Ravenna, and sent in his stead Paul, a patrician, and ordered him to get the pope assassinated, or to seize him and send him in chains to Constantinople. But Gregory, far from being intimidated by the emperor's threats, solemnly excommunicated the exarch for attempting to put the imperial edict in execution, exhorting all the Italian cities to continue stedfast to the Catholic faith. Luitprand, though highly incensed against Gregory, assisted him in his distress; and the populace rose at Ravenna, and murdered the exarch, making prodigious slaughter of the Iconoclasts, or image-breakers, as the abettors of the edict were called. The duke of Naples shared the same fate with the exarch; and as Leo still insisted that his favourite edict should be enforced at Rome, the people of that city, at the instigation of Gregory, withdrew their allegiance from the Greek emperor. Hence the rise of the pope's temporal power.

Informed of this revolt, and not doubting who was the author of it, Leo ordered a powerful army to be raised, with a design both to chastise the rebels and take vengeance on the pope. Gregory, alarmed at these warlike preparations, looked round for some power on which he might depend for protection. The Lombards were possessed of sufficient force, but they were too near neighbours to be trusted; and the Venetians, though zealous Catholics, were not yet in a condition to withstand the strength of the empire. Spain was at that time over-run by the Saracens; the French seemed, therefore, the only people to whom it was advisable to apply for aid, as they were at once able to oppose the emperor, and enemies to his edict. France was then governed by Charles Martel, the greatest commander of his age. Gregory sent a solemn embassy to Charles, entreating him to take the Romans and the church under his protection, and defend them against the attempts of Leo. The ambassadors were received with extraordinary marks of honour: a treaty was concluded; and the French glad to get any concern in the affairs of Italy, became the protectors of the [illegible].

Leo was succeeded on the [illegible] by his son [illegible], but he not only re-

tinue there; and abolished, by that means, the very shadow of subjection to the emperor. Soon after Leo, died Charles Martel, and also Gregory III. who was succeeded by Zachary, an active and enterprising prelate. He obtained from Luitprand the restoration of four cities, which had been formerly surrendered into his hands, and prevailed on his successor Rachis to lay aside his intended hostility against Rome.

While things were in this situation in Italy, Pepin, son of Charles Martel, governed France in the character of Mayor, under Chilperic III. and acquainted, no doubt, with the sentiments of his holiness, proposed to Zachary a case of conscience, which had not hitherto been submitted to the bishop of Rome. He desired to know whether a prince incapable of governing, or a minister invested with royal authority, and who supported it with dignity, ought to have the title of king. Zachary decided in favour of the minister; and the French clergy supported the pretensions of Pepin, because he had restored the lands of which Charles Martel had robbed them. The nobles respected him because he was powerful and brave; and the people despised the sluggard kings whom they scarcely knew by name. The judgment of the pope therefore silenced every scruple. Childeric was deposed; or more properly degraded, for he could never be said to reign. He was shut up in a monastery. Pepin was raised to the throne; and St. Boniface, bishop of Mentz, the famous apostle of the Germans, anointed him solemnly at Soissons.

As Pepin and the popes were united by interest, they maintained an inviolable friendship during the whole of his reign. Astolphus, the successor of Rachis, was desirous to equal the character of Luitprand; he therefore seized Ravenna, and would also have made himself master of Rome, had he not been prevented by the interference of the king of France, who besieged Pavia, and obliged him to sign a disadvantageous treaty. After this Pepin is said to have renounced to the see of Rome the exarchate of Ravenna, Romagna, and the marc of Ancona.

Astulphus, soon after ratifying his treaty with France, was killed by accident, when he was preparing to recover his conquests. Pepin continued to extend his sway and his renown till the year 768; when, after having imposed tribute on the Saxons and Sclavonians, having made the duke of Bavaria take an oath of fidelity, and re-united Aquitaine to his crown, equally respected at home and abroad, he died, in the 54th year of his age and the 17th of his reign. He never affected absolute power, but referred all matters of importance to the national assemblies, of which he was the oracle. By the consent of the nobles he divided his kingdom between his two sons, Charles and Carloman.

Charles and Carloman, the two sons of Pepin, and his successors in the French monarchy, were men of very different dispositions. Charles was open and generous, Carloman dark and suspicious: it was therefore happy for mankind that Carloman died soon after his father, as perpetual wars must have been the consequence of the opposite tempers and interfering interest of the brothers. Now alone at the head of a powerful kingdom, Charles' great and ambitious genius soon gave birth to projects which will

render his name immortal. A prosperous reign of 46 years, abounding with military enterprises, political institutions, and literary foundations, offers to our view, in the midst of barbarism, a spectacle worthy of more polished ages.

Charles and Carloman had married two daughters of Desiderius, king of the Lombards. Carloman left two sons by his wife Berta; but Charles had divorced his consort, under pretence that she was incapable of bearing children, and married Ildegarda, a princess of Suabia. Berta, the widow of Carloman, not thinking herself and her children safe in France after the death of her husband, fled to her father in Italy, and put herself and her two sons under his protection. Desiderius received them with joy. Highly incensed against Charles for divorcing his other daughter, he hoped, by means of these refugees, to raise such disturbances in France as might both gratify his revenge and prevent the French monarch from intermeddling in the affairs of Italy. In this hope he was encouraged by his intimacy with pope Adrian I. to whom he proposed the crowning and anointing of Carloman's two sons. But Adrian, though sufficiently disposed to oblige him, refused to comply with the request; sensible that in so doing he must incur the displeasure of Charles, the natural ally of the church, and the only prince capable of protecting him aganst his ambitious enemies. Enraged at a refusal, Desiderius ravaged the papal territories; or, as they were called, the Patrimony of St. Peter, and threatened to lay siege to Rome itself. In order to avert the pressing danger, Adrian resolved to have recourse to France, in imitation of his predecessors. Charles immediately collected a large army and laid siege to Pavia; but as the Lombards made a gallant defence, he changed the siege into a blockade, and marched with part of his troops to invest Verona. Verona was taken, and Berta, Carloman's widow, and her two sons sent into France, after which they were no more heard of.

The siege of Pavia was renewed, and pushed with fresh vigour. But the festival of Easter approaching, which Charles had resolved to spend at Rome, he left the conduct of the siege once more to his uncle Bernard. The pope received his deliverer in the most pompous manner, the magistrates and judges walking before him with their banners, and the clergy repeating, "Blessed is he that cometh in the name of the Lord!" After Charles had satisfied his curiosity, and confirmed the donation which his father Pepin had made to St. Peter, he returned to the camp before Pavia. The Lombards still continued to defend that city with obstinate valour, so that the siege was little if at all advanced; but a plague breaking out among the besieged, the unfortunate Desiderius was obliged at last to surrender his capital, and deliver up himself, his wife, and children to Charles, who sent them all into France, where they either died a violent death, or languished out their days in obscurity, being never more heard of.

Thus ended the kingdom of the Lombards in Italy, after it had subsisted 206 years. They are represented by the monkish historians as a cruel and barbarous people, because they opposed the ambitious views of the pope; but the many wholesome laws which they left behind them, and which devouring time has still spared, are convincing proofs of their justice, humanity, and wisdom.

A short account of the state of Italy at the time it was entered by Charlemagne will not be proper, and also of the government introduced there by the conqueror.

Italy was then shared by the Venetians, the Lombards, the popes, and the emperors of the East. The Venetians were become very considerable by their trade to the Levant, and bore no small sway in the affairs of Italy, though it does not appear that they had yet any town on the terra firma, or continent. The pope, by the generosity of Pepin and his son Charles, was now master of the exarchate and Pentapolis. The dukedom of Naples and some cities in the two Calabrias were still held by the emperors of the East. All the other provinces of Italy belonged to the Lombards; namely the dukedoms of Friuli, Spoleto, and Benevento, together with the provinces of Liguria, Venetia, Tuscany, and the Alpes Cottiæ, which were properly called the kingdom of the Lombards. These Charles gained by right of conquest, and caused himself, in imitation of them, to be crowned king of Italy, with an iron crown, which is still preserved in the little town of Monza.

The ceremony of coronation being over, the conqueror thought it necessary to settle the government of his new kingdom before he left Italy; and after consulting with the pope, who declared him patrician of Rome and protector of the apostolic see, he agreed, that the people should be permitted to live under their former laws, and that all things should remain as established by his predecessors. Accordingly he allowed the dukes of Friuli, Spoleto, and Benevento, the same authority which they had enjoyed under the Lombard kings. He also permitted the other dukes to hold their dukedoms, contenting himself with an oath of allegiance, which he obliged them, and likewise the three great dukes, to take annually. It was conceived in these words; "I promise, without fraud "or deceit, to be faithful to my sovereign Charles, and his sons as long as I live; and "I swear by these holy gospels that I will be faithful to him, as a vassal to his lord and "sovereign; neither will I divulge any thing, which, in virtue of my allegiance, he shall "commit to me." He never transferred a dukedom from one family to another, unless when the duke broke his oath, or died without male issue. This translation from one to another was called investiture, as was afterwards the case with respect to other vassals and feudatories.

Charles committed the boundaries of his new kingdom and the territory of cities to the care of counts, who were vested with great authority. These boundaries were called Marchæ or Marches, and those who had the care of them were styled counts of the Marches, or Marquisses; whence the title marquis had its rise. He also sent occasionally missi, or commissaries, who were vested with higher powers, and examined into the conduct of the counts, whose province it was to administer justice over all the dominions of Charlemagne. That Italy might retain at least some shadow of liberty, he convened, as often as he returned thither, a general assembly of all the bishops, abbots, and barons of the kingdom, in order to settle affairs of national importance. The Lombards had but one order in the state, composed of the barons and judges; but the French, in the time of Charlemagne, had two, the clergy and nobility: hence was added by Charles in

Italy, after the manner of France, the order of ecclesiastics to that of the barons or nobles.

Almost every year of Charles' reign was signalized by some military expedition, though very different from those of our times. War was then carried on without any settled plan of operations. The troops were neither regularly disciplined nor paid. Every nobleman led forth his vassals, who were only obliged to serve for a certain time; so that there was a kind of necessity of concluding the war with the campaign. The army was dissolved on the approach of winter, and assembled next season if necessary. Hence we are enabled to account for a circumstance which would otherwise appear inexplicable in the reign of this great prince. Besides the Lombards and Saxons whom he conquered, Charles vanquished in several engagements the Abares, or Huns, plundered their capital, and penetrated as far as Raab on the Danube. He likewise made an expedition into Spain, and carried his arms to the banks of the Ebro.

Abdurrahman, the Moorish king, whom we have already mentioned, still reigned with lustre at Cordova. A superb mosque, now the cathedral of that city, 600 feet in length and 250 in breadth, supported by 365 columns of alabaster, jasper, and black marble, continues to manifest the grandeur of that monarch. No other people but the Arabs could then either have conceived or executed such a work. The little Christian king of the Asturias had prudently sued for peace from Abdurrahmen; but the Moorish governors of Saragossa and Arragon, having revolted, implored the assistance of Charlemagne, offering to acknowledge him as their sovereign. Willing to extend his empire on that side, Charles crossed the Pyrenees with all expedition; took Pampeluna and Saragossa, and re-established the Moorish governors under his protection. In re-passing the mountains his rear-guard was defeated by the duke of Gascony at Roncevaux. Here fell the famous Roland, so much celebrated in Romance, and represented as nephew to Charlemagne; though history only tells us that he commanded on the frontiers of Bretagne.

But Charles, though engaged in so many wars, was far from neglecting the arts of peace, the happiness of his subjects, or the cultivation of his own mind. Government, manners, religion, and letters were his constant study. He frequently convened the national assemblies, for regulating affairs both of church and state. In these assemblies he proposed such laws as he considered to be of public benefit, and allowed the same liberty to others; but of this liberty indeed it would have been difficult to deprive the French nobles, who had been accustomed, from the foundation of the monarchy, to share the legislation with their sovereign. His attention extended to the most distant corner of his empire, and to all ranks of men. Sensible how much mankind in general reverence old customs, and those constitutions under which they have lived from their youth, he permitted the inhabitants of all the countries that he conquered to retain their own laws, making only such alterations as he judged necessary for the good of the community. He was particularly tender of the common people, and every where studied their ease and advantage. This benevolence of mind, which can never be sufficiently admired, was both more necessary and more meritorious in those times as the common

nity were then in a state of almost universal oppression, and scarcely thought entitled to the common sympathies of humanity. The same love of mankind led him to repair and form public roads; to build bridges where necessary; to make rivers navigable for the purposes of commerce; and to project that grand canal, which would have opened a communication between the German ocean and the Black sea, by uniting the Danube and the Rhine. This illustrious project failed in the execution, for want of those machines which art has since constructed. But the greatness of the conception, and the honour of having attempted it were beyond the power of contingencies; and posterity has done justice to the memory of other public spirited plans, as one of those few conquerors who did not merely desolate the earth; as a hero truly worthy of the name, who sought to unite his own glory with the welfare of his species.

This great prince was no less amiable in private life than illustrious in his public character. He was an affectionate father, a fond husband, and a generous friend. His house was a model of economy, and his person of simplicity and true grandeur. "For "shame!" said he to some of his nobles, who were finer dressed than occasion required; "learn to dress like men, and let the world judge your rank by your merit, not your "habit. Leave silks and finery to women; or save them for those days of pomp and "ceremony when robes are worn for shew not for use." On some occasions he himself appeared in imperial magnificence, and freely indulged in every luxury; but in general his dress was plain and his table frugal. He had his set hours for study, which he seldom omitted either in the camp or the court, and, notwithstanding his continual wars and unremitted attention to the affairs of a great empire, he found leisure to collect the old French poems and historical ballads, with a view to illustrate the monarchy. The loss of this collection is much to be lamented, and could never have happened if every one had been as well acquainted with its importance as Charles. But he was the phœnix of his age, and though not altogether free from its prejudices, his liberal and comprehensive mind, which examined every thing, and yet found time for all things, would have done honour to the most enlightened period. He was fond of the company of learned men, and assembled them about him from all parts of Europe, forming in his palace a kind of academy, of which he himself condescended to become a member. He also established schools in the cathedrals and principal abbies, for teaching writing, arithmetic, grammar, and church music; certainly no elevated sciences were yet considerable, at a time when many dignified ecclesiastics could not subscribe the canons of those councils in which they sat as members; and when it was a sufficient qualification for a priest to be able to read the Gospels and understand the Lord's prayer.

Alcuin, our learned countryman, was the companion and particular favourite of Charlemagne; instructed him in the sciences, and was at the head of his Royal Academy. A circumstance so much to the honour of this island should be omitted by no British historian. Three rich abbies were the reward of the learning and talents of Alcuin. This benevolence has been thought to border on profusion; but in that age of darkness, when even an enthusiatic zeal for letters was a virtue, no encouragement could be too great for the illuminators of the human mind.

In the year 800 Charlemagne was invited to Rome, to examine the conduct of pope Leo, who had been accused by his enemies. On his arrival there he spent six days in private conferences with the pope; after which he convoked the bishops and nobles to examine the accusation brought against the pontiff. "The apostolic see," exclaimed the bishops, "cannot be judged by man!" Leo, however, spoke to the accusation: he said the king came to know the cause; and no proof appearing against him, he purged himself by oath.

The trial of a pope was doubtless an uncommon scene, but one soon followed yet more extraordinary. One Christmas-day, as the king assisted at mass in St. Peter's church, in the midst of the ecclesiastical ceremonies, and while he was on his knees before the altar, the supreme pontiff advanced, and put an imperial crown upon his head. As soon as the people perceived it they cried, "Long life and victory to Charles "Augustus, crowned by the hand of God! Long live the great and pious emperor of "the Romans." During these acclamations the pope conducted him to a magnificent throne, which had been prepared for the purpose; and as soon as he was seated, paid him those honours which his predecessors had been accustomed to pay to the Roman emperors, declaring that instead of the title of Patrician he should henceforth style him emperor and Augustus. Leo now presented him with the imperial mantle; with which being invested, Charles returned, amidst the acclamations of the populace, to his palace.

One of the principal causes of the fall of empires has ever been, but more especially in modern times, the error of dividing the same monarchy among different princes. This custom was established before Charlemagne: he followed it by a testamentary division of his dominions among his three sons, Charles, Pepin, and Lewis. The particulars of this division are of little consequence, as Lewis only
is necessary, however, to observe, that the Italian provinces were assigned to Pepin; a donation was confirmed to his son Bernard, with the title of king of Italy and proved the ruin of that prince, as well as the cause of much disturbance to the empire.

In the mean time the emperor was threatened by a new enemy, and the most formidable he had ever encountered. The Normans, as the French call them, or the inhabitants of the great northern peninsula of Europe, had long harassed the coasts of his extensive dominions with their robberies and piracies; and notwithstanding the wise measures of Charles, who created a powerful marine, and took every other precaution against their ravages, they not only continued their depredations, but made a formal descent in Friesland, under Godfrey, their king, laying every thing waste before them. Charles assembled all his forces in the neighbourhood of the Rhine, and was preparing for a decisive battle, which might, perhaps, have terminated the empire of the Franks, as Godfrey was not inferior to the emperor either in valour or military skill, and had a numerous body of fearless adventurers under his command. But the issue of this battle was prevented by the death of the Norman prince, who was assassinated by one of his followers. His forces were immediately re-embarked, and a peace was afterwards concluded with his son.

The satisfaction which Charles must have received from this deliverance, and the general tranquillity which he now enjoyed, was more than balanced by his domestic misfortunes. He lost his favourite daughter Rotrude, his son Pepin, and his son Charles. Soon after the death of Charles he associated his son Lewis with him in the empire. The ceremony was very solemn. As if this great man had foreseen the usurpations of the church, he placed the imperial crown upon the altar, and ordered the prince to lift it and set it on his own head; intimating thereby that he held it only of God.

The emperor died at Aix-la-Chapelle, his usual residence, in the 71st year of his age, and the 47th of his reign. The glory of the French empire seemed to expire with him. He possessed all France, all Germany, part of Hungary, part of Spain, the Low countries, and the continent of Italy as far as Benevento. But to govern such an extent of territory a monarch must be endowed with the genius of a Charlemagne.

CHAPTER V.

FRANCE, SPAIN, ITALY, SWITZERLAND, AND THE NETHERLANDS——*From the death of Charlemagne to the accession of Charles VIII. when the first great confederacy was formed for the preservation of the balance of power.*

THE history of Europe, for several ages after the death of Charlemagne, is little more than a catalogue of crimes, and a register of the debasing effects of ignorance and superstition. His empire soon experienced the fate of Alexander's. It had quickly attained its height; and yet, while animated by the superior genius of Charles, it possessed a surprising degree of strength and harmony; but these not being natural to the feudal system, the discordant elements began to separate, under his son Lewis the Debonnaire, so called, on account of the gentleness of his manners; and that vast body, no longer informed by the same spirit, was in a short time entirely dismembered.

Lewis, soon after his accession to the throne, associated his eldest son Lotharius with him in the empire; he created Pepin king of Aquitaine, Lewis king of Bavaria, and after the ceremony of coronation was over, he sent them to the government of their respective kingdoms.

Bernard, king of Italy, the grandson of Charlemagne, was offended at that division. He thought his right to the empire superior to Lotharius's, as his father, Pepin, was the elder brother of Lewis. The archbishops of Milan and Cremona flattered him in his pretensions; he revolted, and levied war against his uncle, in contempt of the imperial authority, to which his crown was subject. Lewis acted on this occasion with more vigour than either his friends or his enemies expected; he immediately raised a powerful army, and was preparing to cross the Alps, when Bernard was abandoned by his troops. That unfortunate prince was made prisoner, and condemned to lose his head; but his uncle, by a singular kind of lenity, mitigated the sentence to the loss of his eyes. He died three days after the punishment was inflicted: and Lewis, to prevent future troubles, ordered three natural sons of Charlemagne to be shaved, and shut up in a convent.

In consequence of these rigours the emperor was seized with a keen remorse, accused himself of the murder of his nephew, and of tyrannic cruelty to his brothers inhumanly secluded from the world. He was encouraged by the monks in this melancholy humour; which at last grew to such height, that he impeached himself in an assembly of the states, and begged the bishops to enjoin him public penance. The clergy, now sensible of Lewis' weakness, set no bounds to their usurpations. The popes thought they might do any thing under so pious a prince: they did not wait for the emperor's confirmation of their election, but immediately assumed the tiara, and were guilty of every other irregularity. The bishops exalted themselves above the throne, and the whole fraternity of the church claimed an exemption from all civil jurisdiction. Even that

set of men who pretend to renounce the world, the monks, seemed to aspire at the government of it.

Lewis, by the advice of his ministers, married a second wife, Judith, descended from one of the noblest families in Bavaria, and had by her Charles the Bald. A new division of the empire, by which a part of Lothario's dominions were assigned to Charles, occasioned the rebellion of Lewis' three sons by the former marriage. The whole empire was now involved in the most dreadful calamities, and its sovereign obliged to renounce the crown, and assume the habit of a penitent. He however regained his dignity, which he possessed till his death, which took place in the year 840.

As bad sons are seldom good brothers, the children of Lewis Debonnaire were seen armed against each other. The civil commotions which now took place increased the power of the nobility, and diminished that of the sovereigns. Charles the Bald, the last surviving son of Lewis, died in 877, in the 54th year of his age. The Normans, who inhabited Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, became, about this time, very formidable to Europe. Under Lewis Debonnaire they threw all France into alarm; and under Charles the Bald they committed dreadful devastations. Their fleets were composed of light barques, which braved the storms of the ocean, and penetrated every creek and river; so that they landed sometimes on the coast, and sometimes in the interior parts of the kingdom. As the government took no effectual measures for repelling them, the unprotected people knew nothing but fear. Fire and sword on all hands marked the route of the ravagers. With their booty they carried off women, to whom they were much addicted: and their boys, to recruit their predatory bands. They were no sooner gone than they again returned. They pillaged Rouen twice; they surprised and burnt Paris; they laid waste Aquitaine and other provinces, and reduced the French monarch to the greatest distress.

Shut up at St. Dennis, while his capital was in flames, Charles the Bald was less anxious about saving his people than the reliques. Instead of encountering the enemy, he bought a peace; or, in other words, he furnished the Normans with the means, while he inspired them with the motive of a new war. They returned accordingly; and Charles, to complete his disgrace, published, when going to assist the pope, in the last year of his reign, a capitular to regulate the contributions to be paid to the Normans.

His son Louis, surnamed, from a defect in his speech, the Stammerer, was of a quite different disposition: but his feeble administration was ill calculated to retrieve matters in their present situation. He died on the 10th of April, 879, while on a march to suppress some insurrections in Burgundy. He left his queen Adelaide pregnant: who, some time after his decease, was delivered of a son, named Charles. After his death followed the interregnum; during which a faction was formed for setting aside the children of Louis the Stammerer, in favour of the German princes, sons of Lones, the brother of Charles the Bald. This scheme, however, proved abortive; and the two sons of the late king, Louis and Carloman, were crowned kings of France. Another kingdom was at that time erected by an assembly of the states, namely the kingdom of Provence,

which consisted of the counties now called Lyonnois, Savoy, Dauphiny, Franche Comte and part of the duchy of Burgundy; and this kingdom was given to duke Boson, brother-in-law to Charles the Bald. In 881 both kings of France died; Louis, as was suspected, by poison; and Carloman of a wound he received accidentally while hunting. This produced a second interregnum, which ended with the calling in of Charles the Gross, emperor of Germany. His reign was more unfortunate than that of any of his predecessors. The Normans, to whom he had given leave to settle in Friesland, sailed up the Seine with a fleet of 700 ships, and laid siege to Paris. Charles, unable to force them to abandon their undertaking, prevailed on them to depart by a large sum of money. But as the king could not advance the money at once, he allowed them to remain in the neighbourhood of Paris during the winter; and they, in return, plundered the country: thus amassing vast wealth, besides the sum which Charles had promised. After this ignominious transaction, Charles returned to Germany in a very declining state of health, both as to body and mind. Here he quarrelled with his empress; and being abandoned by all his friends he was deposed, and reduced to much distress that he would not even have had bread to eat, had not he been supplied by the archbishop of Mentz, out of a principle of charity.

On the deposition of Charles the Gross, Eudes, count of Paris, was chosen king by the nobility, during the minority of Charles, the son of Adelaide, afterwards named Charles the Simple. He defeated the Normans, and repressed the power of the nobility, on which account a faction was formed in favour of Charles, who was sent for with his mother from England. Eudes did not enter into a civil war; but peaceably resigned the greatest part of the kingdom to him, and consented to do homage for the rest. He died soon after this agreement, in the year 898.

During the reign of Charles the Simple the French government declined. By the introductions of fiefs, these noblemen who had got into the possession of governments, having these confirmed to them and their heirs for ever, became, in a manner, independent sovereigns; and as these great lords had others under them, and even these again had their vassals, instead of the equal and easy government which prevailed before, a vast number of insupportable little tyrannies were erected. The Normans too ravaged the country in the most terrible manner, and desolated some of the finest provinces in France. At last, Charles ceded to Rollo, the king or captain of these barbarians, the duchy of Neustria, who thereupon became Christian, changed his own name to Robert, and that of his principality to Normandy.

Rollo was worthy of his good fortune: he sunk the soldier in the sovereign, and proved himself no less skilled in the arts of peace than those of war. Neustria, which henceforth took the name of Normandy, in honour of its new inhabitants, soon became happy and flourishing under his laws. Sensible that the power of a prince is always in proportion to the number of his subjects, he invited the better sort of Normans from all parts, to come and settle in his dominions. He encouraged agriculture and industry, he was particularly severe in punishing theft, robbery, and every species of violence; and rigidly exact in the administration of justice, which he saw was the great basis of policy,

and without which his people would naturally return to their former licentiousness. A taste for the sweets of society increased with the inconveniences of life, and they soon [illegible] justice with the benefits derived from it; so that the duchy of Normandy was, in a short time, not only populous and cultivated, but the Normans were regular in their manners and obedient to their laws. A band of pirates became good citizens, and their leader the ablest prince and the wisest legislator of the age in which he lived.

During the remainder of the reign of Charles the Simple, and the entire reigns of Louis IV. surnamed the Stranger, Lothaire, and Louis V. the power of the Carlovingian race continually declined; till at last they were supplanted by Hugh Capet who had been created duke of France by Lothaire; this revolution happened in the year 987, and was brought about much in the same manner as the former one had been by Pepin. He proved an active and prudent monarch, and possessed such other qualities as were requisite for keeping his tumultuous subjects in awe. He died on the 24th of October, 996, leaving his dominions in perfect quiet to his son Robert.

The new king inherited the good qualities of his father. In his reign the kingdom was enlarged by the death of Henry, duke of Burgundy, the king's uncle, to whom he fell heir. This new accession of territory however was not obtained without a war of several years continuance, on account of some pretenders to the sovereignty of that duchy, and had it not been for the assistance of the duke of Normandy, it is doubtful whether the king would have succeeded. As Robert was of opinion that peace and tranquility were preferable to wide extended dominions with a precarious tenure, he refused the kingdom of Italy and the imperial crown of Germany, both which were offered him. He died on the 20th of July, 1030; having reigned 33 years and lived 60.

Robert was succeeded by his eldest son Henry I. who, in the beginning of his reign, met with great opposition from his mother. She had always hated him and preferred his younger brother Robert, in whose favour she now raised an insurrection. By the assistance of Robert, duke of Normandy, however, Henry overcame all his enemies, and established himself firmly on the throne. In return for this he supported William, Robert's natural son, and afterwards king of England, in the possession of the duchy of Normandy. Afterwards, however, growing jealous of his power, he not only supported the pretenders to the duchy of Normandy, secretly, but invaded that country himself in their favour. This enterprize proved unsuccessful, and Henry was obliged to make peace; but no sincere reconciliation ever followed; for the king retained a deep sense of the disgrace he had met with, and the duke never forgave him for invading his dominions. The treaty between them therefore was quickly broken, and Henry once more invaded Normandy with two armies, one accompanied by himself, and the other by his brother. The first was harrased by continual skirmishes, and the last totally defeated; after which Henry was obliged to agree to such terms as the duke thought proper: but the rancour between them never ceased, and was, in reality, the cause of that implacable aversion, which, for a long series of years, produced perpetual quarrels between the kings of France and those of the Norman race in England.

Henry died in 1059, not without a suspicion of being poisoned; and was succeeded

by his eldest son, Philip, at that time in the eighth year of his age. Baldwin, earl of Flanders, was appointed his guardian; and died in the year 1066, about the time that William of Normandy became king of England. After the death of his tutor, Philip began to shew a very insincere, haughty, and oppressive disposition. He engaged in war with William the Conqueror, and supported his son Robert in his rebellion against him. But, after the death of William, he assisted Robert's brothers against him, by which means he was forced to consent to a partition of his dominions.

In 1092, king Philip, being weary of his queen Bertha, procured a divorce from her, under pretence of consanguinity, and afterwards demanded in marriage Emma, daughter to Roger, count of Calabria. The treaty of marriage was concluded, and the princess was sent over, richly adorned with jewels, and with a large portion in ready money: but the king, instead of espousing the virtuous and fortune, and dismissed the princess herself, carrying off from her husband the countess of Anjou, who was esteemed the handsomest woman in France. [illegible] insinuated, that, not satisfied with the illegal [illegible] a divorce between her and her husband, and prevailed upon [illegible] his own marriage with her. The whole of these [illegible] that the pope, having caused them to be [illegible] in the year 1094, pronounced sentence of excommunication [illegible] part with the countess. On his repentance the censure [illegible] and as regard to his promises, he was in 1095 [illegible] again professed repentance, and was [illegible] the countess of Anjou as formerly, he was excommunicated [illegible] formerly of a prince, exposed him to the contempt [illegible] followed his example, and, at the same [illegible] upon each other, but spoiling [illegible]

In the year 1101 [illegible] to have his affair reviewed, in an assembly at [illegible] sentence of excommunication [illegible] in spite of all these sentences, [illegible] a large sum of money, to give [illegible] Philip at last prevailed, and [illegible] though the king's domestic [illegible] in government had thereby [illegible] therefore associated [illegible] was the very reverse of his [illegible] in the field with a considerable [illegible] to subjection; and, accordingly, [illegible] being utterly subverted.

For these services [illegible] jealous at gave him so much [illegible] years for some England; where he [illegible]

not been long at court, before Henry received, by an express, a letter from Philip; telling him, that for certain important reasons he should be glad if he confined his son, or even dispatched him altogether. The king of England, however, instead of complying with this infamous request, shewed the letter to Louis, and sent him home with all imaginable marks of respect. Immediately on his return, he demanded justice: but the queen procured poison to be given him, which operated so violently, that his life was despaired of. A stranger, however, undertook the cure and succeeded; only a paleness remained in the prince's face ever afterwards, though he grew so fat that he was surnamed the Gross.

On his recovery, the prince was on the point of revenging his quarrel by force of arms; but his father having caused the queen to make the most humble submissions to him, his resentment was at length appeased, and a perfect reconciliation took place.

Nothing memorable happened in the reign of king Philip after this reconciliation. He died in the year 1108, and was succeeded by his son Louis the Gross. The first years of his reign were disturbed by insurrections of his lords, in different places of the kingdom; and these insurrections were the more troublesome, as they were secretly fomented by Henry I. of England, that weakening the power of France, his duchy of Normandy might be the more secure. This quickly brought on a war; in which Henry was defeated, and his son William was obliged to do homage to Louis for the duchy of Normandy. As the kings of England and France, however, were rivals, and exceedingly jealous of each other, the latter espoused the cause of William, the son of Robert, duke of Normandy, whom Henry had unjustly deprived of that duchy. This brought on a new war; in which Louis, receiving a great defeat from Henry, was obliged to make peace, upon such terms as his antagonist thought proper. The tranquility, however, was but of short duration. Louis renewed his intrigues in favour of William, and endeavoured to form a confederacy against Henry; but the latter found means not only to dissipate this confederacy, but to prevail upon Henry V. emperor of Germany, to invade France, with the whole strength of the empire, on one side, while he prepared to attack it on the other. But Louis, having collected an army of 200,000 men, both of them thought proper to desist. Upon this the king of France would have marched into Normandy, in order to put William in possession of that duchy. His great vassals, however, told him, they would do no such thing; that they had assembled in order to defend the territories of France from the invasion of a foreign prince; and not to enlarge his power by destroying that balance which arose from the king of England's possession of Normandy, and which they reckoned necessary for their own safety. This was followed by a peace with Henry, which, as both monarchs had now seen the extent of each other's power, was made on pretty equal terms, and kept during the life of Louis, who died in 1137, leaving the kingdom to his son Louis VII.

The young king was not endowed with any of those qualities which constitute a great monarch. From the superstition common to the age in which he lived, he undertook an expedition into the Holy Land, from whence he returned without glory. When Henry II. ascended the throne of England, some wars were carried on between him and Louis,

with little advantage on either side: at last, however, a perfect reconciliation took place; and Louis took a voyage to England, in order to visit the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury. On his return he was struck with an apoplexy; and though he recovered for that time, yet he continued ever after paralytic on the right side. After having languished for about a year under this malady, he died, on the 18th of September, 1223, leaving the kingdom to his son Philip.

This prince, surnamed The gift of God, The Magnanimous, and The Conqueror, during his life-time; and, as if all these titles had fallen short of his merit, styled Augustus after his death, is reckoned one of the greatest princes that ever set on the throne of France, or any other. It doth not, however, appear that these titles were well founded. In the beginning of his reign he was opposed by a strong faction, excited by his mother. Them, indeed, he repressed with a vigour and spirit which did him honour: but his taking part with the children of Henry II. of England, in their unnatural contests with their father, and his treacherous combination with John, to seize his brother's kingdom, when he was detained prisoner by the emperor of Germany, must be indelible stains in his character, and for ever exclude him from the title of Magnanimous. As to military skill and personal valour he was evidently inferior to Richard I. of England; nor can his recovering of the provinces held by the English in France, from such a mean and dastardly prince as king John, entitle him, with any justice, to the surname of Conqueror. In politics he was evidently the dupe of the pope, who made use of him to intimidate John into submission, by promising him the kingdom of England which he never meant that he should enjoy.

Philip died in 1223, and was succeeded by his son Louis VIII.; and he in 1226, by Louis IX. afterwards styled St. Louis. This prince was certainly possessed of many good qualities, but deeply tinctured by the superstition of the times. This induced him to engage in two croisades. On his return from the first of these, which was against the Saracens of Egypt, he found many disorders in the kingdom, and these he set himself to reform, with the utmost diligence. Having succeeded in this he yielded to Henry III. of England the Limousin, Querci, Perigord, and some other places; in consideration that Henry and his son, prince Edward, should renounce, in the fullest manner, all pretensions to Normandy and the other provinces of France, which the English had formerly possessed.

The reputation of this monarch for candour and justice, was so great, that the barons of England as well as king Henry III. consented to make him umpire of the differences which subsisted between them. But though he decided this matter very justly, his decision was not productive of any good effect. At last the king having settled every thing relating to his kingdom, in a proper manner, set out on another croisade for Africa; where he died of the plague, on the 25th of August, 1270.

His successor, Philip the Hardy, carried on the war against the infidels with vigour; procured the friendship of our Edward I. by ceding to him the county of Angenois, and laboured to repress the power of the barons, but after enduring a variety of misfortunes, expired, in the 16th year of his reign, worn out with his grief and infirmities. His se-

cond son, Philip the Fair, was involved in a war with England, by a petty squabble, which took place between the Norman and English sailors. This war produced no great events, before it was terminated by a peace, in which the two kings abandoned their allies to the resentment of their enemies. After this treaty he invaded Flanders, but was prevented from conquering that country by the interposition of Edward III.

The other remarkable transactions of this reign were the expulsion and confiscation of the estates of the Templars, who, at that time, enjoyed immense possessions in France. The confiscations took place without any form of trial, and upwards of 50 of them were put to death in a most cruel manner. The grand master with three of his principal officers were burnt by a slow fire, in the presence of the king himself. The whole body of these unfortunate knights had been accused of the most gross and abominable sensualities. The particulars were revealed, or pretended to be so, by two criminals, who received their pardon for the discoveries they made; and these discoveries were confirmed by the Templars themselves. But this confession was afterwards retracted, as being extorted from them by the fear of absolute destruction, and those who suffered maintained their purity to the last: and, on the whole, it was believed that Philip consulted his avarice rather than his justice by this cruel execution. The uneasiness of his mind, which he suffered on account of some domestic misfortunes, is supposed to have produced the consumption, of which he died, in the year 1315, the 47th of his age, and 30th of his reign.

Louis the Boisterous had to contend with two great difficulties, the emptiness of his treasury and discontent of his subjects. He died, it is supposed, of poison, and was succeeded by an infant, born after his death, and enrolled among the kings of France, under the name of John I. The death of this infant, three weeks after its birth, made way for Philip the Long. A contagious distemper swept away many thousands of his French subjects. This was supposed, by the superstitious people of those times, to be occasioned by the Jews, who conspired with the Saracens to poison the springs, and that the execution of the project was committed to some lepers, who lived by themselves in hospitals richly endowed. On this, a persecution was instantly commenced against these unfortunate men, and great numbers of them were burnt alive; while the Jews in general, were abandoned to the rage of the populace, who insulted their persons, and plundered their houses, without remorse. The remainder of his reign was employed in a fruitless attempt to settle the coinage of the kingdom.

He was succeeded, in 1322, by his brother, Charles IV.; who had obtained the surname of Fair. He spent immense sums to procure the imperial crown, but was, after all, disappointed. Charles died in the year 1328, and was succeeded by Philip of Valois. He was engaged in hostilities with Edward III. who defeated the French fleet in 1340, took 230 of their ships, and 30,000 Frenchmen, with two of their admirals. On another expedition he landed in Normandy, with a formidable army, and totally defeated the French forces, at the celebrated battle of Cressy. Edward next laid siege to Calais, which was then defended by John de Vienne, an experienced commander, and supplied with every thing necessary for defence. It was at length taken, after a twelvemonth's

siege, the defendants, having been reduced to the last extremity by famine and fatigue. The consequences of this reverse are soon fully related by our description of Calais. These victories produced a truce. Philip died in 1350, when his eldest son John took possession of the kingdom. The war with England being renewed, Edward III. invaded France, having previously sent over his son Edward, the celebrated black prince of Wales. John called a diet to inform Edward to Paris, and addressed the states at Paris, where he explained the distressed situation of his affairs, and showed so fully the necessity of resisting him in the defence of the kingdom, that they consented to maintain an army of 30,000 men during the war. To supply the other exigencies of government they revived the duty on salt, and added a variety of other imposts; but at the same time appointed a committee of their own members, to take care that the money was solely appropriated to the public service.

The satisfaction which John received from these grants, and the suppression of some disturbances which happened about this time, was soon overcast by the news that the prince of Wales had marched with an army of 12,000 men from Bordeaux; and after passing the Agenois, Querci, and the Limousin, had entered the province of Berry. The young warrior had penetrated into the heart of France with a flying body of horse, in hopes of joining the duke of Lancaster in Guienne. But he soon found that his scheme was impracticable: the country before him was too well guarded to permit his advancing further; and all the bridges behind were broken down, which effectually barred a retreat. In this embarrassing situation, his perplexity was increased by being informed that the king of France was actually marching at the head of 60,000 men to intercept him. He at first thought of retreating; but soon finding it impossible, he determined calmly to await the approach of the enemy: and, notwithstanding the disparity of forces, to commit all to the hazard of a battle.

It was at a place called Maupertuis, near Poictiers, that both armies came in sight of each other. The French king might have starved the English into any terms he thought proper to impose; but such was the impatient valour of the French nobility, and such their certainty of success, that it might have been equally hard to restrain their ardour to engage. In the mean time, while both armies were drawn out, and expecting the signal to begin, they were stopped by the appearance of Perigord, who attempted to be a mediator between them. However John, who made himself sure of victory, would listen to no other terms than the restitution of Calais: with which the black prince refusing to comply, the onset was deferred till the next morning, for which both sides waited in anxious suspense.

During this interval the young prince strengthened his host by new entrenchments, and placed 300 men in ambush, with as many archers, who were commanded to attack the enemy in flank, during the heat of the engagement. Having taken these precautions, he ranged his army in three divisions; the van was commanded by the earls of Warwick, the rear by the earls of Salisbury and Suffolk, and the main body by himself. In like manner the king of France arranged his forces in three divisions; the first commanded by the duke of Orleans, the second by the dauphin, attended by his younger brothers,

while he himself led up the main body, seconded by his youngest and favourite son, then about 14 years of age. As the English were to be attacked only by marching up a long narrow lane, the French suffered greatly from their archers, who were posted on each side behind the hedges. Nor were they in a better situation upon emerging from this danger, being met by the black prince himself, at the head of a chosen body of troops, who made a furious onset upon their forces, already in great disorder. A dreadful overthrow ensued: those who were yet in the lane recoiled upon their own forces; while the English troops, who had been placed in ambush, took that opportunity to increase the confusion, and confirm the victory. The dauphin and the duke of Orleans were among the first that fled. The king of France himself made the utmost efforts to retrieve by his valour, what his rashness had forfeited; but his single courage was unable to stop that consternation, which had now become general through his army; and his cavalry soon flying, he found himself exposed to the enemy's fury. At length, spent with fatigue, and despairing of success, he thought of yielding himself a prisoner; and frequently cried out that he was ready to deliver himself to his cousin, the prince of Wales. The honour of taking him, however, was reserved for a much more ignoble hand; he was seized by Dennis de Morbec, a knight of Arras, who had been obliged to fly his country for murder.

In April following, the prince conducted his royal prisoner through London, attended by an infinite concourse of people of all ranks and stations. His modesty, upon this occasion, was very remarkable; the king of France was clad in royal apparel, and mounted on a white steed, distinguished by its size and beauty: while the prince himself rode by his side, upon a mean little horse, and in very plain attire.

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In this disastrous state of affairs the miseries of the people were heightened by a new and unexpected evil. The peasants, who had been all along oppressed by the nobles, were now treated in such a manner, that they rose in great numbers to revenge themselves; the castles of the nobility were razed to the ground, their wives and daughters ravished, and themselves put to the most cruel torments. At last they were obliged to arm in their own defence. The duke of Orleans cut off 10,000 of them in the neighbourhood of Paris; 12,000 were massacred by the king of Navarre; 9000, who had laid siege to the town of Meaux, where the dauphiness and three other ladies of the first rank resided, were routed, and pursued with dreadful slaughter, by an officer in the service of Edward. Amidst these confusions, Marcel, the seditious leader already mentioned, perished, in a tumult of his own raising; and the most virtuous and prudent people of the nation supported the pretensions of the dauphin. His most dangerous enemy was the king of Navarre, who had allured to his standard numbers of those Norman and English adventurers who had followed Edward into France, and there been left to seek their fortunes: where they associated themselves under the name of the Companions. By such a formidable competitor the dauphin was reduced almost to the last extremity, when his hopes were revived by an unexpected proposal, from his rival, of peace, upon equitable and moderate terms. Historians in general have ascribed this to the natural levity of the king of Navarre, but some have been of opinion that he acted from prudential motives, and that he justly supposed it would be more easy to deal with the dauphin, who was his own kinsman, and humbled by so many misfortunes, than with a haughty and imperious conqueror like Edward.

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tivity; and soon after he closed a long and unfortunate reign by his death, in the year 1364, about the 56th year of his age.

Charles, surnamed the Wise, succeeded his father on the throne of France; and this monarch, merely by the force of a finely conducted policy, and even though suffering some defeats, restored his country once more to tranquillity and power. He caused the Companions, a set of banditti, who had been long a terror to the peaceable inhabitants, to be enrolled into an army, and employed in the wars of Navarre. Though he avoided any general engagement with the English, he was able to expel them gradually from some of their conquests, and had at length the pleasure to see that their affairs fell into total ruin, on the death of Edward and his son the black prince. Having thus established once more the house of Valois on the throne of France, he died, in the year 1379, in consequence of poison formerly given him by his enemies.

During the reign of his successor, Charles the Well-beloved, a variety of circumstances concurred to extend the power of England, and to reduce the affairs of France nearly to the verge of ruin. As Charles was under 12 years of age, he was placed under the tuition of the dukes of Burgundy and Bourbon. The former of these, instead of instructing his pupil in the ways of virtue, indulged him in every kind of vicious pleasure: hoping thereby to gain his favour afterwards. The citizens of Paris, oppressed by taxes, broke out into tumults, and were quelled with difficulty; while the mal-administration of Philip, the duke of Burgundy, soon involved the nation in unnecessary hostilities with the Flemings. The minority of Charles was now drawing near to an end and he began to display a genius which raised the hopes of the nation. His administration was for some time prudent and vigorous. He conciliated the affections of his people by restoring their privileges, punishing their oppressors, and relieving them from the taxes which had been imposed in his minority. A very singular circumstance, however, occured, very prejudicial to the interests of the French nation. The king, having taken up arms to punish the disobedience of the duke of Brittany, was seized at Mans with a slow fever; but could not be prevailed upon to rest or take physic. On the 5th of August, 1391 having marched all day in the heat of the sun, a miserable, ragged, wild-looking fellow darted from behind a tree, and laying hold of the bridle of his horse, cried out, "Stop! where are you going king? You are betrayed;" and immediately withdrew again into the wood. The king passed on, not a little disturbed, and soon after one of the pages, who rode behind him and carried his lance, overcome with heat, fell asleep, and let it fall upon the helmet, which was carried by the other. The king, hearing the noise, looked about; and perceiving the page lifting the lance, killed him immediately; then riding furiously, with his sword drawn, he struck on every side of him, and at every person, till he broke his sword; upon which, one of the gentlemen leaped up behind him and held his arm. He fell soon after, and lay as if he had been dead; so that, being taken up, and bound in a waggon, he was carried back to Mans, where he lay two days in a lethargy, after which he came a little to himself, and expressed great concern at the blood he had shed in his delirium. The people, who had expressed the greatest concern for his distemper, were equally rejoiced at the news of

his recovery; but unfortunately it was soon dicovered that he no longer possessed that strength of judgment and understanding for which he had formerly been remarkable. In a few months, indeed, the health and understanding of the king seemed to be sufficiently restored to re-assume the administration; but in the year 1393, it was again disturbed, by an accident no less extraordinary than the former had been. An entertainment had been given in honour of the marriage of one of the queen's attendants. At this six masques entered the apartment, disguised like satyrs, in linen clothes covered with rosin, and, while warm, stuck over with down. These were the king and five of his lords. The duchess of Berri paid attention to the king, though she did not know him, and engaged in conversation with him. In the mean time, the duke of Orleans, ignorant of the consequence, out of diversion, ran a lighted torch against one of them. His whole dress was instantly in a flame; and the fire was from him communicated to all the rest. The masques, notwithstanding the situation they were in, called out, "Save "the king! save the king!" On which the duchess of Berri, recollecting that it must be him with whom she had engaged in conversation, wrapped him in her cloak, and preserved him from further danger; only one of the rest escaped, by jumping into a cistern of water; the other four perished in the flames. The terror which he king underwent by this accident, instantly occasion a relapse; and he continued delirious at intervals as long as he lived.

The nation was now involved in the utmost confusion, and divided into two parties, violently hostile to each other; namely the Burgundians, and the Armagnacs, or adherents of the duke of Orleans. This was thought by Henry V. of England a favourable opportunity to recover from France those grants which had formerly been given up by treaty. He put to sea and landed at Harfleur, at the head of an army of 6000 men at arms, and 24,000 foot, mostly archers. He took Harfleur by storm, and proceeded further into the country, where he met with but a feeble resistance from the enemy, yet the climate seemed to fight against the English; a contagious dysentery carrying off three parts of Henry's army. A numerous army of 14,000 men at arms, and 40,000 foot, was, by this time, assembled, under the command of count Albert, and was now placed to intercept Henry's weakened forces on their return. The English monarch now thought of retiring to Calais. In this retreat, which was at once both painful and dangerous, Henry took every precaution to inspire his troops with patience and perseverance; and shewed them in his own, the brightest example of fortitude and resignation. He was continually harrassed on his march by flying parties of the enemy: and whenever he attempted to pass the river Somme, across which his march lay, he saw troops on the other side ready to oppose his passage. However he was so fortunate as to seize by surprize, a passage near St. Quintin, which had not been sufficiently guarded, and there he safely carried over his army.

But the enemy was still resolved to intercept his retreat: and after he had passed the small river of Tertrois at Blangi, he was surprised to observe from the heights the whole French army drawn up in the plains of Agincourt; and so posted that it was impossible for him to proceed on his march, without coming to an engagement.

On the morning of Friday, the memorable 25th of October, 1415, the day of Crispin and Crispanus, the English and French armies were ranged in order of battle, each in three lines, with bodies of cavalry on each wing. The constable D'Albert, who commanded the French army, fell into the snare that was laid for him, by drawing up his army in the narrow plain between the two woods. This deprived him, in a great measure, of the advantage he should have derived from the prodigious superiority of his numbers; obliged him to make his lines unnecessarily deep, about 30 men in file; to crowd his troops, particularly his cavalry, so close together, that they could hardly move or use their arms; and, in a word, was the chief cause of all the disasters that followed. The French, it is said, had a considerable number of cannon of different sizes in the field; but we do not hear that they did any execution, probably for want of room. The first line of the French army, which consisted of 8000 men at arms on foot, mixed with 4000 archers, with 500 men at arms mounted on each wing, was commanded by the constable D'Albert, the dukes of Orleans and Bourbon, and many other nobles; the dukes of Alençon, Brabant, Bar, &c. conducted the second line; and the earls of Marle, Damartine, Fauconberg, &c. were at the head of the third line. The king of England employed various arts to supply his defect of numbers. He placed 200 of his best archers in ambush, in a low meadow, on the flank of the first line of the French. His own first line consisted wholly of archers, four in file; each of whom, besides his bow and arrows, had a battle-axe, a sword, and a stake pointed with iron at both ends, which he fixed before him in the ground, the point inclining outwards, to protect him from cavalry; which was a new invention, and had a happy effect. That he might not be incumbered, he dismissed all his prisoners, on their word of honour to surrender themselves at Calais, if he obtained the victory; and lodged all his baggage in the village of Agincourt, in his rear, under a slender guard. The command of the first line was, at his earnest request, committed to Edward duke of York, assisted by the lords Beaumont, Willoughby, and Fanhope; the second was conducted by the king, with his youngest brother, Humphry, duke of Gloucester, the earls of Oxford, Marshal, and Suffolk; and the third was led by the duke of Exeter, the king's uncle. The lines being formed, the king, in shining armour, with a crown of gold adorned with precious stones, on his helmet, mounted on a fine white horse, rode along them, and addressed each corps with a cheerful countenance and animating speeches. To inflame their resentment against their enemies he told them, that the French had determined to cut off three fingers of the right hand of every prisoner; and to rouse their love of honour, he declared that every soldier in that army, who behaved well, should henceforth be deemed a gentleman, and intitled to bear court armour.

When the two armies were drawn up in this manner, they stood a considerable time gazing at one another in solemn silence. But the king, dreading that the French would discover the danger of their situation and decline a battle, commanded the charge to be sounded about 10 o'clock in the forenoon. At that instant the first line of the English kneeled down and kissed the ground: and then starting up, discharged a flight of arrows, which did great execution among the crowded ranks of the French. Immediately

after, a signal being given, the archers in ambush arose, and discharged their arrows on the flank of the French line, and threw it into some disorder. The battle now became general, and raged with uncommon fury. The English archers, having expended all their arrows, threw away their bows, and rushing forward, made dreadful havoc with their swords and battle-axes. The first line of the enemy was, by this means, defeated; its leaders being either killed or taken prisoners. The second line, commanded by the duke D'Alençon, (who had made a vow either to take or kill the king of England, or to perish in the attempt) now advanced to the charge, and was encountered by the second line of the English, conducted by the king. This conflict was more close and furious than the former. The duke of Gloucester, wounded and unhorsed, was protected by his royal brother till he was carried off the field. The duke D'Alencon forced his way to the king, and assaulted him with great fury; but that prince brought him to the ground, where he was instantly dispatched. Discouraged by this disaster, the second line made no more resistance, and the third fled without striking a blow; yielding a complete and glorious victory to the English, after a violent struggle of three hours duration.

The king did not permit his men to pursue the fugitives to a great distance, but encouraged them to take as many prisoners as they could, on or near the field; in which they were so successful, that, in a little time, his captives were more numerous than his soldiers. A great proportion of these prisoners were men of rank and fortune: for many of the French noblesse, being on foot, and loaded with their heavy armour, could not make their escape. Among these were the dukes of Orleans and Bourbon, the marshal Boucicant, the counts D'Eu, Vendome, Richemont, and Harcourt, and 7000 barons, knights, and gentlemen. The French left dead on the field of battle the constable D'Albert, the three dukes of Alençon, Brabant and Bar, the archbishops of Sens, one marshal, 13 earls, 92 barons, 1500 knights, and a far greater number of gentlemen, besides several thousands of common soldiers. Even the French historians acknowledge that the loss of the English was inconsiderable; those of our own contemporary writers, who make it the greatest, affirm that it did not exceed 100, and that the duke of York and the earl of Suffolk were the only great men that fell on that side, on this memorable action.

The interests of the French continued to decline during the remainder of the reign of Charles VI. who died in the year 1422, and was succeeded by his son Charles VII. Nothing can be more deplorable than the situation of that monarch on assuming the crown. The English were masters of almost all France; and Henry VI. though yet but an infant, was solemnly invested with regal power by legates from Paris. The duke of Bedford was at the head of a numerous army in the heart of the kingdom, ready to oppose every insurrection; while the duke of Burgundy, who had entered into a firm confederacy with him, still remained stedfast and seconded his claims. Yet, notwithstanding these unfavourable appearances, Charles found means to break the leagues formed against him, and to bring back his subjects to their natural interests and their duty.

However his first attempts were totally destitute of success. Wherever he endea-

voured to face the enemy he was overthrown ; and he could scarcely rely on the friends next his person. His authority was insulted even by his own servants ; advantage after advantage was gained against him ; and a battle, fought near Verneuil, in which he was totally defeated by the duke of Bedford, seemed to render his affairs altogether desperate. But from the impossibility of the English keeping the field, without new supplies, Bedford was obliged to retire into England ; and, in the mean time, his vigilant enemy began to recover from his late consternation. Dumois, one of his generals, at the head of 1000 men, compelled the earl of Warwick to raise the siege of Montargis ; and this advantage, slight as it was, began to make the French suppose that the English were not invincible.

But they soon had still greater reason to triumph in their change of fortune, and a new revolution was produced by means, apparently the most unlikely to be attended with success. In the village of Domremi, near Vaucoleurs, on the borders of Lorrain, there lived a country girl, about 27 years of age, called Joan d'Arc. This girl had been a servant at a small inn ; and in that humble station had submitted to those hardy employments which fit the body for the fatigues of war. She was of an irreproachable life, and had hitherto testified none of those enterprising qualities which displayed themselves soon after. She contentedly fulfilled the duties of her situation, and was remarkable only for her modesty and love of religion. But the miseries of her country seemed to have been one of the greatest objects of her compassion and regard. Her mind, inflamed by these objects, and brooding with melancholy stedfastness upon them, began to feel several impulses, which she was willing to mistake for the inspirations of heaven. Convinced of the reality of her own admonitions, she had recourse to one Baudricourt, governor of Vaucoleurs, and informed him of her destination by heaven to free her native country of its fierce invaders. Baudricourt treated her at first with neglect ; but her importunities at length prevailed ; and, willing to make a trial of her pretensions, he gave her some attendants, who conducted her to the court, which, at that time, resided a Chinen.

The French court were probably sensible of the weakness of her pretensions, but they were willing to make use of every artifice to support their declining fortunes. It was therefore given out that Joan was actually inspired ; that she had been able to discover the king, among the number of his courtiers, although he had laid aside all the distinctions of his authority ; that she had told him some secrets which were only known to himself ; and that she had demanded and minutely described a sword, in the church of St. Catherin de Fierbois, which she had never seen. In this manner, the minds of the vulgar being prepared for her appearance, she was armed cap-a-pee, and shewn in that martial dress to the people. She was then brought before the doctors of the university ; and they, tinctured with the credulity of the times, or willing to second the imposture, declared that she had actually received her commission from above.

When the preparations for her mission were completely blazoned, the next aim was to send her against the enemy. The English were at that time besieging the city of Orleans, the last resource of Charles, and every thing promised them a speedy surrender.

Joan undertook to raise the siege; and, to render herself still more redoubtable, armed herself with the miraculous sword, of which she had before such extraordinary notice. Thus equipped, she ordered all the soldiers to confess themselves before they set out: she displayed in her hand a consecrated banner, and assured the troops of certain success. Such confidence on her side soon raised the spirits of the French army; and even the English, who pretended to despise her efforts, felt themselves secretly influenced by the terrors of her mission. A supply of provisions was to be conveyed into the town: Joan, at the head of some French troops, covered the embarkation, and entered Orleans at the head of the convoy, which she had safely protected. While she was leading her troops along, a dead silence and astonishment reigned among the English; and they regarded, with religious awe, that temerity, which they thought nothing but supernatural assistance could inspire. But they were soon roused from their state of amazement by a sally from the town; Joan led on the besieged, bearing the sacred standard in her hand, encouraging them with her words and actions, bringing them to the trenches, and overpowering the besiegers in their own redoubts. In the attack of one of the forts she was wounded in the neck with an arrow, but instantly pulling out the weapon with her own hands, and getting the wound quickly dressed, she hastened back to lead the troops and to plant her victorious banner on the ramparts of the enemy. These successes continuing, the English found that it was impossible to resist troops animated by such superior energy; and Suffolk, who conducted the attack, thinking that it might prove extremely dangerous to remain any longer in the presence of such a courageous and victorious enemy, raised the siege, and retreated with all imaginable precaution.

The raising of the siege of Orleans was one part of the maid's promise to the king of France; the crowning him at Rheims was the other. She now declared that it was time to complete that ceremony; and Charles, in pursuance of her advice, set out for Rheims at the head of 12,000 men. The towns through which he passed opened their gates to receive him; and Rheims sent him a deputation, with its keys, upon his approach. The ceremony of his coronation was there performed with the utmost solemnity; and the Maid of Orleans (for so she was now called) seeing the completion of her mission, desired leave to retire, alledging that she had now accomplished the end of her calling. But her services had been so great that the king could not think of parting with her; he pressed her to stay so earnestly that she at length complied with his request.

A tide of successes at first followed the performance of this solemnity, but at length the Maid of Orleans, having thrown herself into Compiegne, was taken prisoner by the duke of Burgundy. She was condemned to be burnt alive for sorcery, and is generally believed to have suffered agreeable to that sentence, in the market-place of Rouen. An opinion has, however, been entertained, that she was secretly conveyed to a distance, and lived many years afterward. Soon after this transaction, the duke of Burgundy returned to his allegiance, the duke of Bedford departed this life, and the city of Paris acknowledged the French king for its sovereign. The English affairs now became totally irretrievable, and nothing remained of all their extensive conquests except the city of Calais.

The latter days of Charles were embittered by domestic misfortunes; and his death, which took place in 1461, was occasioned by his abstaining from food, under an apprehension of being poisoned. He was succeeded by Lewis XI. a dark, crafty, and cruel prince, who nevertheless laid the foundation of the future greatness of France. By his arts he deprived the common people of their liberty, depressed the power of the nobility, established a standing army, and even induced the states to render many taxes perpetual, which formerly were only temporary, in order to support the army, which was to keep themselves in slavery. From this time the people were accustomed to submit entirely to the voice of their sovereign as their only legislator; and being always obedient in matters of the greatest consequence, they cheerfully contributed whatever sums were required to fulfil the king's pleasure.

During this period the Netherlands were possessed by a number of petty sovereigns, who, with the titles of counts and dukes, possessed, in reality, the sovereign power, paying homage occasionally to the king of France or the emperor of Germany. Towards the close of the 15th century they became united under the house of Burgundy, and came, at length, by marriage into the possession of the emperor Maximilian. The inhabitants cultivated commerce, and were extremely jealous of their liberties.

The history of Switzerland may be recorded in a few words, till we give an account of that wonderful revolution to which it was indebted for its liberty. Fortified by their natural situation, surrounded with mountains, torrents, and woods, the Swiss, having nothing to fear from strangers, had lived happily in a rugged country, suited only to men who have been accustomed to a frugal and laborious course of life. Equality of condition was the basis of their government. They had been free from time immemorial; and when any of their nobility attempted to tyrannize, they were either altogether expelled, or reduced within bounds by the people. But although the Swiss were extremely jealous of their liberty, they had always been submissive to the empire on which they depended; and many of their towns were free and imperial.

When Rodolph of Hapsburg was elected emperor, several lords of castles formally accused the cantons of Ury, Schwitz, and Underwald, of having withdrawn themselves from their feudal subjection. But Rodolph, who had formerly fought against these petty tyrants, decided in favour of the citizens; and thenceforth these three cantons were under the patronage, but not the dominion, of the house of Austria.

Rodolph always treated the Swiss with great indulgence, and generously defended the rights and privileges against the noblemen who attempted to infringe them. Albert's conduct, in these respects, was just the reverse of his father's; he wanted to govern the Swiss as an absolute sovereign, and had formed a scheme for erecting their country into a principality for one of his sons. In order to accomplish this purpose he endeavoured to persuade the cantons of Ury, Schwitz, and Underwald, to submit voluntarily to his dominion. In case of compliance he promised to rule them with great lenity; but finding them tenacious of their own independency, and deaf to all his solicitations, he resolved to treat them by rougher methods, and appointed governors, who domineered over them in the most arbitrary manner.

The tyranny of these governors exceeded all belief. Gessler, governor of Ury, ordered his hat to be fixed upon a pole in the market-place of Altorf, and every person was commanded, on pain of death, to pay obeisance to it. But the independent spirit of William Tell, who, among others, had projected the deliverance of his country, disdained to pay that absurd homage. On this the governor ordered him to be hanged; but remitted the punishment, on condition that he should strike an apple from his son's head with an arrow. Tell, who was an excellent marksman, accepted the alternative, and had the good fortune to strike off the apple without hurting his son. But Gessler, perceiving a second arrow under William's coat, inquired for what purpose that was intended. "It was designed for thee," replied the indignant Swiss, "if I had killed my son." For that heroic answer he was doomed to perpetual imprisonment, though it was happily put out of the governor's power to carry his sentence into execution.

This and other acts of wanton tyranny determined Arnauld Melchtal, a native of Underwald, Werner Straffacher of Schwitz, and Walter Furtz of Ury, to put in execution those measures which they had concerted for delivering themselves and their country from the Austrian dominion. Naturally bold and enterprising, and united by a long intimacy of friendship, they had frequently met in private to deliberate upon this interesting subject: each associated three others; and these 12 men accomplished their important enterprise without the loss of a single life. Having prepared the inhabitants of their several cantons for a revolt, they surprised the Austrian governors, and conducted them to the frontiers; obliging them to promise, upon oath, never more to serve against the Helvetian nation, then dismissed them; an instance of moderation not perhaps to be equalled in the history of mankind, of a people incensed against their oppressors, and who had them in their power.

Thus these three cantons Ury, Schwitz, and Underwald, delivered themselves from the Austrian yoke, and established that liberty, which, till within our recollection, they continued to enjoy. The other cantons soon engaged in this confederacy, which gave birth to the republic of Switzerland: never did any people fight longer or harder for their liberty than the Swiss. They purchased it by above 60 battles against the Austrians, and they reaped the fruit of their labour, for the change of government seemed to have produced a change in the face of the country. The rude soil, which lay neglected under cruel and tyrannical masters, now appeared cultivated; the craggy rocks are covered with vines; and the wild heath, tilled by the hands of freedom, became a fruitful place.

In tracing the history of Italy through the long period which is included in this chapter, it is necessary to pursue a double plan; first recording such events as concerned Italy in general, and afterwards tracing the progress of the particular states of which it is composed. As the Lombards had not been possessed of the whole territory of Italy, so the whole of it never came into the possession of Charlemagne: neither, since the time of the Goths, has the whole of this country been under the dominion of any single state. Some of the southern provinces were still possessed by the emperors of Constantinople; and the liberal grants of Pepin and Charlemagne himself to the pope, had invested him with a considerable share of temporal power. The territories of the pope, indeed, were

supposed to be held in vassalage from France; but this the popes themselves always stiffly denied. The undisputed territory of Charlemagne in Italy, therefore, was restricted to Piedmont, the Milanese, the Mantuan, the territory of Genoa, Parma, Modena, Tuscany, Bologna, the dukedoms of Friuli, Spoleto, and Benevento; the last of which contained the greatest part of the present kingdom of Naples.

The feudal government which the Lombards had introduced into Italy, naturally produced revolts and commotions, as the different dukes inclined either to change their masters or to set up for themselves. Several revolts indeed happened during the life of Charlemagne himself; which, however, he always found means to crush: but after his death the sovereignty of Italy became an object of contention between the kings of France and the emperors of Germany. From this time we may date the troubles with which Italy was so long overwhelmed; and of which, as they proceeded from the ambition of those called kings of Italy and their nobles, of the kings of France and of the emperors of Germany, it is difficult to have any clear idea.

While Lothaire was engaged in his unnatural war with Louis Debonnaire, the Saracens landed on the coasts of Italy, and committed such ravages that even the bishops were obliged to arm themselves for the defence of the country. Lothaire, however, after returning from his unnatural war with his father, was so far from attempting to put an end to these ravages, or to restore tranquillity, that he seized on some places belonging to the see of Rome, under pretence that they were part of his kingdom of Lombardy; nor would he forbear these encroachments till expressly commanded to do so by his father. After having embroiled himself, and almost lost all his dominions in a war with his brothers after the death of Louis, and declared his son, also called Louis, king of Italy, this ambitious prince died, leaving to Louis the title of emperor, as well as king of Italy, with which he had before invested him.

The new emperor applied himself to the restoration of tranquillity in his dominions, and driving out the Saracens from those places which they had seized in Italy. This he fully accomplished, and obliged the infidels to retire into Africa; but, in 875, he died, without naming any successor. After his death some of the Italian nobles, headed by the duke of Tuscany, represented to the pope, that as Louis had left no successor, the regal dignity, which had so long been usurped by foreigners, ought now to return to the Italians. The pope, however, finding that Charles the Bald, king of France, had such an ambition for the imperial crown that he would stick at nothing to obtain it, resolved to gratify him, though at as high a price as possible. He accordingly crowned him emperor and king of Lombardy, on condition of his owning the independency of Rome, and that he himself only held the empire by the gift of the pope. This produced a conspiracy among the discontented nobles; and at the same time, the Saracens renewing their incursions, threatened the ecclesiastical territories with the utmost danger. The pope solicited the emperor's assistance with the greatest earnestness; but the latter died before any thing effectual could be done: after which, being distressed by the Saracens on one hand, and the Lombard nobles on the other, the unhappy pontiff was forced to fly into France; Italy now fell into the utmost confusion and anarchy; during

which time many of the nobles and states of Lombardy assumed an independence, which they have ever since retained.

In 879 the pope was conducted to Italy with an army, by Boson, son-in-law to Louis II. of France: but though he inclined very much to have raised this prince to the dignity of king of Italy, he found his interest insufficient for that purpose, and matters remained in their former situation. The nobles, who had driven out the pope, were now indeed reconciled to him; but, notwithstanding this reconciliation, the state of the country was worse than ever; the great men renouncing the authority of any superior, and every one claiming to be sovereign in his own territories. To add to the calamities which ensued through the ambition of these despots, the Saracens committed every where the most terrible ravages; till, at last, the Italian nobles, despising the kings of the Carlovingian race, who had weakened themselves by their mutual dissensions, began to think of throwing off even all nominal submission to a foreign yoke, and retaining the imperial dignity among themselves. Thus they hoped that by being more united among themselves, they might be more able to resist the common enemy. Accordingly, in 885, they went to pope Adrian, requesting him to join them in asserting the independency of Italy; they obtained of him the two following decrees, viz. That the popes, after their election, might be consecrated, without waiting for the presence of the king or his ambassadors; and that if Charles the Gross died without sons, the kingdom of Italy, with the title of emperor, should be conferred on some of the Italian nobles.

In consequence of these decrees, Berengarius, duke of Fruili, seized on the kingdom of Italy, on the death of Charles the Gross. During his reign the Hungarians invaded Italy, and plundered the towns of Treviso, Vicenza, and Padua, without resistance, the inhabitants flying every where into fortified places. This devastation they continued for two years; nor could their departure be procured without paying them a large sum of money, which, however, proved of little avail; for the following year they returned, and ravaged the territory of Fruili without controul. Scarcely were these invaders departed, when the Saracens, who had settled at the foot of the Alps, invaded Apulia and Calabria, and made an irruption as far as Acqui, in the neighbourhood of Pavia; while the inhabitants, time venna, count of Tuscany, applied himself to regulate the affairs of the church, and to repress the insults of the Saracens. While he was considering on the most proper methods of effecting this, one of the Saracens, who had received an injury from his countrymen, fled to Rome, and offered to deliver the Italians from their invasions, if the pope would but allow him a small body of men. His proposals being accepted, 60 young men were chosen, all well armed; who, being conducted by the Saracen into by-paths, attacked the infidels as they were returning from their inroads, and several times defeated great parties of them. These losses affecting the Saracens, a general alliance was concluded amongst all their cities; and having fortified a town on the Garigliano, they abandoned the rest and retired hither. Thus they became much more formidable than

before; which alarming the pope, he consulted with Arnulphus, prince of Benevento and Capua, sending at the same time ambassadors to Constantine, the Greek emperor, inviting him to an alliance against the infidels. The Saracens, unable to withstand such a powerful combination, were besieged in their city: where, being reduced to great straits, they at last set fire to it, and sallied out into the woods; but being pursued by the Italians, they were all cut off to a man.

In 924 Berengarius was murdered at Verona, and the Saracens, taking advantage of the disturbances which then subsisted, plundered the cities of Mantua, Brescia, and Bergamo. Marching afterwards to Pavia, they invested it closely on all sides; and, about the middle of March, 925, taking advantage of the wind, they set fire to the houses next the walls, and during the confusion broke open the gates, and getting possession of the city, treated the inhabitants with the greatest barbarity. Having burnt the capital of the kingdom, they next proceeded to Placenza, where they plundered the suburbs; and then returned to Pannonia laden with booty.

Another Berengarius, grandson of the former, became king of Italy in 950; he exceedingly oppressed the Italians, and revolted against Otho, emperor of Germany. This at last procured his ruin; for, in 961, Otho returned with an army into Italy, where he was crowned king by the archbishop of Milan, and the year following was crowned emperor by the pope. On this occasion he received the imperial crown from his holiness, and kissed his feet with great humility: after which they both went to the altar of St. Peter, and bound themselves by a solemn oath, the pope to be always faithful to the emperor, and to give no assistance to Berengarius or Aldebert, his enemies; and Otho to consult the welfare of the church, to restore to it all its patrimony by former emperors. Otho, besides this, bestowed very rich presents on the church of St. Peter. He ordained that the election of popes should be according to the canons; that the elected pope should not be consecrated till he had publicly promised, in presence of the emperor's commissaries, to observe every thing formerly specified with regard to the rights of the emperors; that these commissaries should constantly reside at Rome, and make a report every year how justice was administered by the judges; and, in case of any complaints, the commissaries should lay them before the pope; but if he neglected to intimate them, the imperial commissaries might then do what they please.

Otho was, however, so far from yielding any implicit obedience to the pope, that he joined with the bishops in opposing John XII. and electing Leo in his place. At the time of Otho's death Italy was divided into the provinces of Apulia, Calabria, the dukedom of Benevento, Campania, Terra Romana, the dukedoms of Spoleto, Tuscany, Romagna, Lombardy, and the marquisites of Ancona, Verona, Friuli, Treviso, and Genoa. Apulia and Calabria were still claimed by the Greeks; but all the rest were either immediately subject to, or held of, the kings of Italy. Otho conferred Benevento, (including the antient Samnium) on the duke of that name, Campania and Lucania he gave to the dukes of Capua, Naples, and Salerno. Rome with its territory, Ravenna with the exarchate, the dukedom of Spoleto with Tuscany, and the marquisate of Ancona he granted to the pope; and retained the rest of Italy under the form of a kingdom,

Some of the cities were left free, but all tributary. He appointed several hereditary marquisates and counties, but reserved to himself the sovereign jurisdiction in their territories. The liberty of the cities consisted in a freedom to choose their own magistrates, to be judged by their own laws, and to dispose of their own revenues, on condition that they took their oath of allegiance to the king, and paid the customary tribute. The cities that were not free were governed by the commissaries or lieutenants of the emperor; but the free cities were governed by two or more consuls, afterwards called potestates, chosen annually, who took the oath of allegiance to the emperor before the bishop of the city, or the emperor's commissary. Besides regulating what regarded the cities, Otho distributed honours and possessions to those who had served him faithfully. The honours consisted in the titles of duke, marquis, count, captain, valvasor, and valvasin; the possessions were, besides land, the duties arising from harbours, ferries, roads, fish-ponds, mills, salt-pits, the uses of rivers, and all pertaining to them, and such like. The dukes, marquisses, and counts, were those who received dukedoms, marquisates, and counties from the king in fiefs; the captains had the command of a certain number of men, by a grant from the king, duke, marquis, or count; the valvasors were subordinate to the captains, and the valvasins to them.

During the reigns of the second and third Othos, a citizen of Rome, whose name was Crescentius, attempted to restore the antient republic. Otho III. in the year 998, besieged the city, took it by assault, and caused Crescentius to be beheaded. Henry, successor of Otho, was induced to promise the pope, before his coronation, that he would be faithful to him and his successors in every thing.

Henry III. granted to certain Norman adventurers the investiture of great part of Apulia and Calabria, which they had wrested from the Greeks and Saracens. His son, Henry IV. had a long contest with a succession of popes, one of whom was the celebrated Hildebrand, otherwise denominated Gregory VII. How this affair was determined between Henry V. and Gregory VIII. has been already related.

In the reign of Conrad III. who succeeded Lothario, the celebrated factions called the Guelphs and Ghibellines arose, which for many years deluged the cities of Italy with blood. They took their origin during a civil war in Germany, in which the enemies of the emperor were called Guelphs, and his friends Ghibellines; and these names were quickly received in Italy, as well as other parts of the emperor's dominions. Of this civil war many of the cities in Italy took the advantage to set up for themselves; neither was it in the power of Conrad, who, during his whole reign, was employed in unsuccessful crusades, to reduce them; but, in 1158, Frederic Barbarossa, successor to Conrad, entered Italy, at the head of a very numerous and disciplined army. His army was divided into several columns for the conveniency of entering the country by as many different routes. Having passed the Alps he reduced the town of Brescia; where he made several salutary regulations for the preservation of good order and military discipline. Continuing to advance, he besieged Milan, which surrendered at discretion. He was crowned king of Lombardy at Monza, and having made himself master of all the other cities of that country, he ordered a minute inquiry to be set on foot concerning the

rights of the empire, and exacted homage of all those who held of it, without excepting even the bishops. Grievances were redressed; magistracies were reformed; the rights of regality discussed and ascertained; new laws enacted for the maintenance of public tranquillity and the encouragement of learning, which now began to revive in the school of Bologna; and, above all, subvassals were not only prohibited from alienating their lands, but also compelled on their oath to their lords paramount, to accept the emperor nominally, when they swore to serve and assist them against all their enemies. The pope took umbrage at this behaviour towards the ecclesiastics: but Frederic justified what he had done, telling his deputies it was reasonable they should do homage for the fiefs they possessed; as Jesus Christ himself, though the lord of all the sovereigns upon earth, had deigned to pay for himself and St. Peter the tribute which was due to Cæsar.

Soon after this pope Adrian IV. died, and two opposite factions elected two persons, known by the names of Victor II. and Alexander III. The emperor's allies necessarily acknowledged the pope chosen by him; and those princes who were jealous of the emperor acknowledged the other. Victor II. Frederic's pope, had Germany, Bohemia, and one half of Italy, on his side; while the rest submitted to Alexander III. The emperor took a severe revenge on his enemies; Milan was razed from the foundation, and salt strewed on its ruins; Brecia and Placentia were dismantled; and the other cities which had taken part with them were deprived of their privileges. Alexander III. however, who had excited the revolt, returned to Rome after the death of his rival; and at his return the civil war was renewed. The emperor caused another pope, and after his death another to be elected. Alexander then fled to France, the common asylum of every pope who was oppressed by the emperors; but the flames of civil discord which he had raised continued daily to spread. In 1168 the cities of Italy, supported by the Greek emperor and the king of Sicily, entered into a new association for the defence of their liberties; and the pope's party at length prevailed. In 1176 the imperial army, worn out by fatigues and diseases, was defeated by the confederates, and Frederic himself narrowly escaped. About the same time he was defeated at sea by the Venetians; and his eldest son, Henry, who commanded his fleet, fell into the hands of the enemy. The pope, in honour of this victory, sailed out into the open sea, accompanied by the whole senate; and after having pronounced a thousand benedictions on that element, threw into it a ring as a mark of his gratitude and affection. Hence the origin of that ceremony, which is annually performed by the Venetians, under a notion of espousing the Adriatic. These misfortunes disposed the emperor towards a reconciliation with the pope; but reckoning it below his dignity to make an advance, he rallied his troops, and exerted himself with so much vigour in repairing his loss, that the confederates were defeated in a battle; after which he made proposals of peace, which were now joyfully accepted, and Venice was the place appointed for a reconciliation. The emperor, the pope, and a great many princes and cardinals attended; and there the emperor, in 1177, put an end to the dispute, by acknowledging the pope, kissing his feet, and holding his stirrup while he mounted his mule. This reconciliation was attended with the submission of all the towns of Italy which had entered into an association for their mutual defence.

They obtained a general pardon, and were left at liberty to use their own laws and forms of government; but were obliged to take the oath of allegiance to the emperor, as their superior lord. Calixtus, the antipope, finding himself abandoned by the emperor in consequence of this treaty, made also his submission to Alexander, who received him with great humanity; and, in order to prevent for the future those disturbances, which had so often attended the elections of the popes, he called a general council, in which it was decreed that no pope should be deemed duly elected, without having two-thirds of the votes in his favour.

Henry VI. conciliated the affection of the Lombards by enlarging the privileges of Genoa, Pisa, and other cities. During the minority of Frederic II. both Italy and Germany suffered severely from the violent contention between his adherents and those of Otho of Brunswick, who was supported by the pope. Frederic himself was afterwards excommunicated by pope Gregory IX. on account of his backwardness to depart for the Holy Land. The animosity between the Guelphs and Ghibellines revived; the pope was obliged to quit Rome; and Italy became a scene of war and desolation, or rather of an hundred civil wars; which, by inflaming the minds and exciting the resentment of the Italian princes, accustomed them but too much to the horrid practices of poisoning and assassination.

After his death an interregnum succeeded, during which the cities of Lombardy obtained their freedom, and the imperial power in Italy became nearly annihilated.

In tracing the history of particular states through this period, we shall pursue the order of their situation. The history of Savoy is involved in obscurity; it appears to have been a county in the 12th century, and erected into a duchy in 1416.

In the time of Charlemagne, Genoa began to be distinguished by its wealth and population, was governed by consuls, and gave name to the coast. About the year 950, the Franks having lost all authority in Italy, the Genoese began to form themselves into a republic, and to be governed by their own magistrates, who were freely elected, and took the name of consuls. In order to support their independence, they applied themselves with great assiduity to commerce and navigation. They extended their commerce from Spain to Syria, and from Egypt to Constantinople; their vessels, according to the custom of these times, being fitted for fighting as well as merchandize. Having thus acquired great reputation, they were invited in 1017 by the Pisans, who had likewise formed themselves into a republic, to join with them in an expedition against Sardinia, which had been conquered by the Moors. In this expedition they were successful; the island was reduced; but from this time an enmity commenced between the two republics, which did not end but with the ruin of the Pisans. The first war with Pisa commenced about 30 years after the Sardinian expedition, and lasted 18 years; when the two contending parties, having concluded a treaty of peace, jointly sent their forces against the Moors in Africa, of whom they are said to have killed 100,000. The Genoese were very active in the time of the crusades, and had a principal share in taking Jerusalem. They also waged considerable war with the Moors in Spain, of whom they generally got the better. They prevailed against the neighbouring states; and 1220, had enlarged their terri-

teries beyond the skirts of the Appennines, so that the rest of Italy looked upon them with a jealous eye: in 1311 the factions, which had for a long time reigned in the city, notwithstanding all its wealth and power, induced the inhabitants to submit themselves for 20 years to the dominion of Henry VII. emperor of Germany. After his death the dissensions in Geneva revived with greater fury than ever. They continued till 1331, when it was agreed that the city should be governed by the king of Naples' vicar; that the exiles should be recalled, and all the offices of state be equally divided between the Guelphs and Ghibellines. About the year 1336 they elected a duke, in 1390 submitted to the king of France, and in 1422 the duke of Milan obtained the sovereignty. In 1435 they again laid claim to independence, in 1458 submitted to the French, and two years after put themselves under the protection of the duke of Milan.

The governors of Milan early asserted independence, which brought a dreadful calamity on the country; for, in 1152, the capital itself was levelled with the ground, by the emperor Frederic Barbarossa, who committed great devastations throughout the duchy. During the 13th century there were long and bitter contentions between the popular party, headed by Torianno, and the friends of the nobility, under Otho, the archbishop. The latter part ultimately prevailed, and the city remained in the possession of the Visconti family till the year 1448. After this it was seized by Sforza, who had married the last duke's natural daughter. In the beginning of the 15th century the dominions of the Milanese included Bologna and Pisa.

Modena was governed by the family of Este, who, though they acknowledged themselves vassals of the empire, had an unlimited authority in their own dominions.

Towards the close of the 11th century, Venice began to make a very considerable figure among the Italian states, and to carry on wars with several of them. In 1084 the republic was, by the emperor of Constantinople, invested with the sovereignty of Dalmatia and Croatia; which, however, had been held long before by right of conquest. They distinguished themselves greatly in the several croisades, and rendered themselves at length very formidable throughout all Europe. The Sicilians, Paduans, with the states of Verona and Ferrara, felt the weight of their power; and in 1773 they ventured to oppose Frederic Barbarossa, emperor of Germany.

The Genoese, by their successful application to commerce, having raised themselves in such a manner as to be capable of rivaling the Venetians, a long series of wars took place between the republics, in which the Venetians generally had the advantage, though sometimes they met with terrible overthrows. These expensive and bloody quarrels undoubtedly weakened the republic in the main, notwithstanding its successes. In the year 1348, however, the Genoese were obliged to implore the protection of Visconti, duke of Milan, in order to support them against their implacable enemies the Venetians. Soon after this, in the year 1352, the latter were utterly defeated, with such loss that it was thought the city itself must have fallen into the hands of the Genoese, had they known how to improve their victory. This was in a short time followed by a peace; but from this time the power of the republic began to decline.

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the pope and emperor, and their respective adherents the Guelphs and Ghibellines, withdrew themselves from the dominion of both, and erected themselves into separate commonwealths. In that of Florence, John de Medicis, a popular nobleman, so insinuated himself into the favour of his countrymen, that they invested him with sovereign power. Pisa was a famous republic till subdued, first by the duke of Milan, and then by the Florentines, in the year 1406. The duchy of Ferrara was governed by the house of Este.

The greater part of the kingdom of Naples was included in the duchy of Beneventum. Arechi the duke of this territory, swore allegiance to Charlemagne; and though he revolted against him, found means to preserve his dignity till his death. During the 9th century there were almost continual wars between the Beneventines and the Neapolitans, who were subject to the eastern emperor. The latter called in the Saracens to their assistance, who landed at Brindisi, about the year 840, and committed many devastations without effecting any permanent settlement. Sicardo, who was at this time duke of Benevento, attacked the city of Amalfi, levelled its walls with the ground, carried off all its wealth, and the body of its tutelar saint Triphonen. A great many of the inhabitants were transported to Salerno, and by promoting alliances between the inhabitants of both places, he endeavoured to unite Amalfi to his own principality as firmly as possible. During these transactions Sicardo had tyrannized over his subjects in such a manner that at last his nobles conspired against him, and he was murdered in his tent. From the death of Sicardo to the end of the 10th century the Neapolitan territories were filled with continual distraction; the Beneventines, Salernitans, Neapolitans, Cajetans, and Amalfitans being frequently at war with each other, and miserably harrassed by the Saracens, whom the contending parties had called in to their assistance. In the year 1002 or 1003 the Normans first began to be remarkable in Italy. They had about a century before embraced Christianity, and become very zealous in all the superstitions which were then practised. They were particularly zealous in visiting sacred places, especially Rome, and the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem; and being naturally of a very martial disposition, they forced through great bodies of Greeks and Saracens, who opposed their passage. About this time 40, or as others write 100 of the Normans, returning from Jerusalem by sea, landed at Salerno in the habit of pilgrims, where they were honourably received by Guaimarius, who, not being in a condition to oppose the invaders by force, was preparing to pay them a large sum of money, which they demanded, when the Normans proposed to attack them; and having got arms and horses from the prince, they engaged the infidels with such fury and bravery that they entirely defeated them, and obliged them to fly to their ships. By this complete victory Guaimarius was filled with such admiration of the valour of these strangers, that he intreated them to remain in his country; offering them lands and the most honourable employments: but not being able to prevail with them to stay in Italy, or even accept of his presents, at their departure he sent some ambassadors with them to Normandy, in vessels loaded with exquisite fruits, rich furniture for horses, &c. in order to allure the valiant Normans to leave their own country. Great numbers of Norman adventurers at different times

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migrated into Italy; among whom were William, Drogo, and Umbert, three of the sons of Tancred, duke of Hautville; from whose posterity those princes were descended who first conquered the island of Sicily from the Saracens, and formed the present kingdom of Naples. In 1040 the Greek emperor Michael Paleologus, in order to secure the affection of his fickle subjects, undertook the conquest of Italy from the Saracens; and for that purpose sent a general, named Michael Maniacus, into Sicily. This commander, hearing of the great reputation of the Normans, sent to Guaimarius, prince of Salerno, intreating him to grant him some of those warriors. His request was most willingly hearkened to by the prince of Salerno, who, to encourage the Normans to engage in the expedition, promised them some additional rewards besides the emperor's pay. William, Drogo, and Umbert accordingly marched from Salerno with 300 of their countrymen; and passing over into Sicily, distinguished themselves most remarkably in the conquest of that island. Maniacus acknowledged that the recovery of Messina was chiefly owing to their valour; and William, with his Normans, gained a complete victory over the Saracens before Syracuse, where he killed the governor of the city in single combat. The Normans, after this, being ill treated by those who required their assistance, returned back again to Italy, and conquered the greatest part of Puglia from the Greeks. In 1056 the famous Robert Guiscard ascended the throne. He made great progress in the conquest of Calabria, and reduced most of the cities which held for the Greeks in these parts. About the same time the counts of Capua were expelled from their territory; and the abbot Desiderius mentions his having seen the children of Landulphus V. the last count, going about as vagabonds, and begging for their support. The pope, alarmed by these conquests, excommunicated the Normans by wholesale, pretending that they had seized some of the territories belonging to the church; but by the pretended submission of Robert, he not only was persuaded to take off the sentence of excommunication, but to invest him with the provinces of Apullia, Calabria, and Sicily. After this he continued the war against the Greeks with great success. In 1071, in conjunction with his brother Roger, he conquered the island of Sicily, and gave the investiture of the whole island to him, with the title of count, reserving to himself only the half of Palermo, Messina, and the valley of Demona. The like success attended his arms against Salerno in 1074; but after this having inadvisedly taken some places from the pope, he again fell under the sentence of excommunication; yet he was reconciled to him in 1080, and received a second time the investiture of all his dominions. The next year he undertook an expedition against the Greeks; and though the emperor was assisted by a Venetian fleet, Robert made himself master of the island of Corsica, reduced Durazzo and great part of Romania; insomuch that by the success of his arms, and his near approach to Constantinople, he struck an universal terror among the Greeks. But while Robert was thus extending his conquests, he was alarmed by the news of a formidable rebellion in Italy, and that the emperor Henry had taken the city of Rome, and closely shut up the pope in the castle of St. Angelo. Robert, therefore, leaving the command of the army to his son Boemund, returned to Italy, where he immediately dispersed the rebels, and released the pope, while his son gained a considerable victory over the Greeks. After this,

Robert made great preparations for another expedition into Greece, in order to second his son Boemund. Alexius Comnenius, who was about this time declared emperor by the Greek army, being assisted by the Venetian fleet, endeavoured to oppose his passage, but was entirely defeated, with the loss of a great many galleys. But a final stop was now put to his enterprises by his death, which happened in the island of Corfu, in 1085. Though the power of the Normans was thus thoroughly established in Italy and Sicily, and though the prince of Benevento was, in 1130, invested by the pope with the title of king of Sicily; yet, by reason of the civil dissensions which took place among themselves, and the general confusion which reigned in Italy in those ages, they were obliged, notwithstanding all their valour, to submit to the emperor in 1195. By him the Sicilians were treated with so great cruelty that the empress Constantia was induced to conspire against him in 1197, took him prisoner, and released him only on condition of his sending off his army for the Holy Land. This was complied with; but the emperor did not long survive the reconciliation, being poisoned, as was supposed, by order of the empress. In 1253 the pope claimed the kingdom as a fief devolved on the church, in consequence of a sentence of deposition pronounced against king Frederic at the council of Lyons; and in 1263 the kingdom was, in consequence of this right, conferred on Charles, count of Anjou. After much contention and bloodshed the French thus became masters of Sicily and Naples. The tyranny of the French being insupportably severe, John de Procida, a gentleman of Salerno, formed a conspiracy against them, to which he procured the support of the king of Arragon and the pope. On Easter Monday, March 30, 1282, the chief conspirators had assembled at Palermo; and after dinner both the Palermitans and French went in a grand procession to the church of Monreale, about three miles without the city: while they were sporting in the fields, a bride happened to pass by with her train, who being observed by one Drochettus, a Frenchman, he ran to her and began to use her in a rude manner, under pretence of searching for concealed arms. A young Sicilian, exasperated with this affront, stabbed him with his own sword: and a tumult ensuing, 200 Frenchmen were immediately murdered. The enraged populace then ran to the city, crying out, "Let the French die! Let the French die!" and without distinction of age or sex, slaughtered all of that nation they could find, even such as had fled to the churches. The conspirators then left Palermo, and excited the inhabitants to murder the French all over the island, excepting in Messina, which city at first refused to be concerned in the revolt. But being invited by the Palermitans to throw off the French yoke, a few weeks after, the citizens, in a tumultuous manner, destroyed some of the French; and pulling down the arms of king Charles, and erecting those of the city, chose one Baldwin for their governor, who saved the remaining French from the fury of the populace, and allowed them to transport themselves with their wives and children to Italy. Eight thousand persons are said to have been massacred on this occasion. They now transferred their allegiance to the king of Arragon; and it was at length determined that Naples and Sicily should be two distinct kingdoms, the former subject to princes of the house of Anjou, the latter to the race of Arragon.

Malta was at this time subject to the kings of Sicily.

We have related in a former chapter the successful resistance of Pelayo or Pelagius, the first king of Leon, against the Moors. In the year 758 their power received another blow by the rise of the kingdom of Navarre. This kingdom, we are told, took its origin from an accidental meeting of gentlemen, to the number of 600, at the tomb of an hermit, named John, who had died among the Pyrenees. At this place, where they had met on account of the supposed sanctity of the deceased, they took occasion to converse on the cruelty of the Moors, the miseries to which the country was exposed, and the glory that would result from throwing off their yoke; which they supposed might easily be done, by reason of the strength of their country; on mature deliberations the project was approved: one Don Garcia Ximenes was appointed king, as being of illustrious birth, and looked upon as a person of great abilities. He recovered Ainsa, one of the principal towns of the country, out of the hands of the infidels; and his successor, Don Garcia Inigas, extended his territories as far as Biscay: however, the Moors still possessed Portugal, Murcia, Andalusia, Granada, Tortosta, with the interior parts of the country, as far as the mountains of Castile and Saragossa. Their internal dissensions, which revived after the death of Abdelraham, contributed greatly to reduce the power of the infidels in general. During this period a new Christian principality appeared in Spain, namely that of Castile; which is now divided into the Old and New Castile. The Old Castile was recovered long before that called the New. It was separated from the kingdom of Leon on one side by some little rivers; on the other it was bounded by the Asturias, Biscay, and the province of Rioja. On the south it had the mountains of Segovia and Avila; thus laying in the middle between the Christian kingdom of Leon and Oviedo, and the Moorish kingdom Cordova. Hence this district soon became an object of contention between the kings of Leon and those of Cordova; and as the former were generally victorious, some of the principal Castilian nobility retained their independency, under the protection of the Christian kings, even when the power of the Moors was at its greatest height. In 884 we first hear of Don Roderiguez assuming the title of count of Castile, though it does not appear that either his territory or title were given him by the king of Leon. Nevertheless this monarch, having taken upon him to punish some of the Castilian lords as rebels, the inhabitants made a formal renunciation of their allegiance, and set up a new kind of government. The supreme power was now vested in two persons of quality, styled judges; however this method did not long continue to give satifaction, and the sovereignty was once more vested in a single person. By degrees Castile fell entirely under the power of the kings of Leon and Oviedo; and in 1035, Don Sanchez bestowed it on his eldest son, Don Ferdinand, with the title of king; and thus the territories of Castile were first firmly united to those of Leon and Oviedo; and the sovereigns were thenceforth styled kings of Leon and Castile. Besides all these another Christian kingdom was set up in Spain, about the beginning of the 11th century. This was the kingdom of Arragon. The inhabitants were very brave and lovers of liberty, so that it is probable they had, in some degree, maintained their independency, even when the power of the Moors was greatest. The history of Arragon, however, during its infancy, is much less known than that of any of the others hitherto

mentioned. We are only assured, that about the year 1035, Don Sanchez, surnamed the Great, king of Navarre, erected Arragon into a kingdom, in favour of his son Don Ramira; and afterwards it became very powerful. At this time then we may imagine the continent of Spain divided into two unequal parts, by a straight line drawn from east to west, from the coasts of Valentia to a little below the mouth of the Duro. The country north of this belonged to the Christians, who, as yet, had the smallest and least valuable share; and all the rest to the Moors. In point of wealth and real power both by land and sea, the Moors were generally superior; but their continual dissensions greatly weakened them, and every day facilitated the progress of the Christians. Indeed had either of the parties been united, the other must soon have yielded; for though the Christians did not make war upon each other constantly as the Moors did, their mutual feuds were yet sufficient to have ruined them, had their adversaries made the least use of the advantages thus afforded them. But among the Moors almost every city was a kingdom; and as these petty sovereignties supported one another very indifferently, they fell a prey, one after another, to their enemies. In 1080 the king of Toledo was engaged in war with the king of Seville, another Moorish potentate; which being observed by Alphonso, king of Castile, he also invaded his territories; and in four years made himself master of the city of Toledo, with all places of importance in the neighbourhood; from thenceforth making Toledo the capital of his dominions. In a short time the whole province of new Castile submitted: and Madrid, the present capital of Spain, fell into the hands of the Christians, being at that time but a small place.

In 1236 Don Ferdinand of Castile and Leon took the celebrated city of Cordova, the residence of the first Moorish kings; at the same time that James I. of Arragon dispossessed them of the island of Majorca, and drove them out of Valentia. Two years afterwards Ferdinand made himself master of Murcia, and took the city of Seville: and in 1303 Ferdinand IV. reduced Gibraltar.

In the middle of the 15th century an event took place, singular in itself, and productive of the most important consequences. Henry IV. of Castile, a weak and voluptuous prince, having given great offence to a large body of the nobility, the latter assembled at Avila, with the archbishop of Toledo at their head, and there proceeded to depose the monarch. For this purpose a spacious theatre was erected in a plain without the walls of the town: an image, representing the king, was seated on a throne, clad in royal robes, with a crown on its head, a sceptre in its hand, and a sword of justice by its side: the accusation against Henry was read, and the sentence of deposition pronounced in presence of a numerous assembly. At the close of the first article of the charge, the archbishop of Toledo advanced, and tore the crown from the head of the image; at the close of the second the Conde de Placetia snatched the sword of justice from its side; at the close of the third the Conde de Benevento wrested the sceptre from its hand; and at the close of the fourth Don Diego Lopes de Stuniga tumbled it headlong from the throne. At the same instant Don Alphonzo, Henry's brother, a boy about 12 years of age, was proclaimed king of Castile and Leon in his stead.

This extraordinary proceeding was followed by a civil war, which did not cease till

some time after the death of the young prince, on whom the nobles had bestowed the kingdom. The archbishop and his party then continued to carry on war in the name of Isabella, the king's sister, to whom they gave the title of Infanta; and Henry could not extricate himself out of these troubles, nor remain quiet upon his throne, till he had signed one of the most humiliating treaties ever extorted from a sovereign; he acknowledged his sister Isabella the only lawful heiress of his kingdom, in prejudice to the rights of his reputed daughter Joan, whom the malcontents affirmed to be the offspring of an adulterous commerce between the queen and Don la Cueva. The great object of the malcontent party now was the marriage of the princess Isabella, upon which, it was evident, the security of the crown and the happiness of the people must, in a great measure, depend. The alliance was sought by several princes: the king of Portugal offered her his hand; the king of France demanded her for his brother; and the king of Arragon for his son Ferdinand. The malcontents very wisely preferred the Arragonian prince, and Isabella prudently made the same choice: articles were drawn up, and they were privately married by the archbishop of Toledo.

On the death of Henry, Isabella ascended the throne of Castile, as her husband about the same time obtained that of Arragon. Ferdinand and Isabella were persons of great prudence, and, as sovereigns, highly worthy of imitation: but they do not seem to have merited all the praises bestowed upon them by the Spanish historians. They did not live like man and wife, having all things in common under the direction of the husband: but like two princes in close alliance: they neither loved nor hated each other; were seldom in company together; had each a separate council; and were frequently jealous of one another in the administration. But they were inseparably united in their common interests, always acting upon the same principles, and forwarding the same ends. Their first object was the regulation of their government, which the civil wars had thrown into the greatest disorder. Rapine, outrage, and murder were become so common as not only to interrupt commerce, but, in a great measure to suspend all intercourse between one place and another. These evils the joint sovereigns suppressed by their wise policy, at the same time that they extended the royal prerogative.

But at the same time that their Catholic majesties (for such was the title they now bore) were giving vigour to their civil government, and securing their subjects from violence and oppression, an intemperate zeal led them to establish an ecclesiastical tribunal, contrary to the natural rights of humanity and the mild spirit of the gospel. This was the court of inquisition; which decides upon the honour, fortune, and even the life of the unhappy wretch who happens to fall under the suspicion of heresy, or a contempt of any thing prescribed by the church, without his knowing or being confronted by his accusers, or permitted either defence or appeal. Six thousand persons were burnt by order of this sanguinary tribunal within four years after the appointment of Torquemada, the first inquisitor-general; and upwards of 100,000 felt its fury. The same furious and blind zeal which led to the depopulation of Spain, led also to its aggrandizement.

The kingdom of Granada now alone remained of all the Mahometan possessions in Spain. These, equally zealous and ambitious, were naturally disposed to turn their

eyes to that fatal territory, and to think of increasing their hereditary dominions by expelling the enemies of Christianity, and extending its doctrines. Every thing conspired to favour their project: the Moorish kingdom was a prey to civil wars, when Ferdinand, having obtained the bull of Sixtus IV. authorising a crusade, put himself at the head of his troops, and entered Granada. He continued the war with rapid success: Isabella attended him in several expeditions; and they were both in great danger at the siege of Malaga, an important city, which was defended with great courage, and taken in 1487. Baza was reduced in 1489, after the loss of 30,000 men. Guadix and Almeria were delivered up to them by the Moorish king Alzagel; who had first dethroned his brother Albeacon, and afterwards been chased from his capital by his nephew Abdali. That prince engaged in the service of Ferdinand and Isabella, who, after reducing every other place of eminence, undertook the siege of Granada. Abdali made a gallant defence; but all communication with the country being cut off, and all hopes of relief at an end, he capitulated, after a siege of eight months, on condition that he should enjoy the revenue of certain places, in the fertile mountains of Alpujarros; that the inhabitants should retain the undisturbed possession of their houses, goods, and inheritances, the use of their laws, and the free exercise of their religion. Thus ended the empire of the Moors in Spain, after it had continued about 800 years. They introduced the arts and sciences into Europe at a time when it was lost in darkness; they possessed many of the luxuries of life, when they were not even known among the neighbouring nations; and they seem to have given birth to that romantic gallantry, which so eminently prevailed in the ages of chivalry; and which, blending itself with the veneration of the northern nations for the softer sex, still particularly distinguishes antient from modern manners. But the Moors, notwithstanding these advantages, and the eulogies bestowed upon them by some writers, appear always to have been destitute of the essential qualities of a polished people, humanity, generosity, and mutual sympathy.

The conquest of Granada was followed by the expulsion, or rather the pillage and banishment of the Jews, who had engrossed all the wealth and commerce of Spain. The inquisition exhausted its rage against these unhappy people; many of whom pretended to embrace Christianity, in order to preserve their property. About this time their Catholic majesties concluded an alliance with the emperor Maximilian; and a treaty of marriage for their daughter Joan, with his son Philip, archduke of Austria, and sovereign of the Netherlands.

During the long period to which this chapter relates, the study of literature was generally neglected, while superstition was substituted in the place of religion. The Waldenses, however, in the 13th and following centuries, and a few individuals in earlier times appeared to have maintained the same doctrines as were more generally diffused at the reformation.

CHAPTER VI.

THE HISTORY OF THE SOUTH-WEST OF EUROPE——*From the accession of Charles VIII. to the beginning of the French revolution.*

AS Charles VIII. was only 14 years of age at his father's death, violent disputes arose, respecting the administration, which terminated in a civil war. The duke of Orleans, first prince of the blood, and afterward the celebrated Louis XII. proving unsuccessful in his intrigues, betook himself to arms, and entered into a league with the duke of Brittany and the archduke Maximilian. The Bretons were defeated in the battle of St. Aubin, and the duke of Orleans was taken prisoner.

The death of the duke of Brittany, which happened soon after this defeat, threw the affairs of that duchy into the utmost confusion, and seemed to threaten the state with final subjection. It was the only great fief which now remainded disunited from the crown of France; and as the duke had died without male heirs, some antiquated claims to its dominions were revived by Charles VIII. Discovering that it would be longer than was at first expected before Brittany could be reduced by force, it was at length agreed that Charles should marry Ann, the heiress of that duchy; though she had been betrothed to Maximilian, the king of the Romans, and Charles had already been married to his daughter, Margaret of Austria.

Maximilian, whose poverty had prevented his giving any assistance to his bride, or even from coming to see her, enraged at the double disgrace he had suffered, began, when too late, to think of revenge. France was now threatened with invasion from the united forces of Austria, Spain, and England. But this formidable confederacy was soon dissipated. Henry, whose natural avarice had prevented him from giving the necessary assistance, was bought off with money; the immediate payment of 745,000 crowns, and the promise of 25,000 annually ever after, persuaded him to retire into his own country. Ferdinand, king of Spain, had the counties of Rousillon and Cardagne restored to him; while Maximilian was gratified by the cession of part of Artois, which had been acquired by Louis XI.

The young king of France agreed to these terms the more readily, because he was impatient to undertake an expedition into Italy, in order to conquer the kingdom of Naples, to which he claimed a right. Most of his counsellors were against the expedition; but the king was inflexible, even though Ferdinand, king of Naples, offered to do homage for his kingdom, and pay him a tribute of 50,000 crowns a-year. He appointed Peter duke of Bourbon, regent in his absence; after which he set out on his expedition with very few troops and very little money. By the way he fell ill of the small-pox, but in a short time recovered; and entering Italy with only 6000 horse and 12,000 foot, he was attended with the most surprising success, traversing the whole country in less than six weeks, and becoming master of the kingdom of Naples in less

than a fortnight. Such extraordinary good fortune seemed miraculous, and he was reckoned an instrument raised up by God to destroy the execrable tyrants with which Italy was at that time infested. Had Charles made use of this prepossession in his favour, and acted up to the character generally given him, he might have raised his name as high as any hero of antiquity. His behaviour, however, was of a very different nature. He amused himself with feasts and shows, and leaving his power in the hands of favourites, they abandoned it to any one who would purchase titles, places, or authority, at the rates they imposed; and the whole force he proposed to leave in his new conquered dominions amounted to no more than 4000 men.

But while Charles was thus losing his time, a league was concluded against him at Venice; into which entered the pope, the emperor Maximilian, the archduke Philip, Ludowic Sforza, and the Venetians. The confederates assembled an army of 40,000 men, commanded by Francis, marquis of Mantua, and they waited for the king in the valley of Farnova, in the duchy of Parma, into which he descended with 9000 men. On the 6th of July, 1495, he attacked the allies, and notwithstanding their great superiority, defeated them, with the loss of only 80 of his own men. Thus he got safe to France, but his Italian dominions were lost almost as soon as he had departed. Some schemes were proposed for recovering these conquests, but they were never put in execution, and the king died of an apoplexy, in 1498.

Charles VIII. was succeeded by Louis, duke of Orleans, who was now in his 36th year. He was a generous and amiable prince, but was blinded by a wild desire of Italian conquests. As he had, while duke of Orleans, some claim upon Naples, he determined immediately, on his ascending the throne of France, to assert them by force. The affairs of Italy were much more favourable to his designs than formerly. The pope, Alexander VI. was very much in his interests, from the hopes of getting his son, Cæsar Borgia, provided for: he had conciliated the friendship of the Venetians by promising them a part of the Milanese; he concluded a truce with the archduke Philip, and renewed his alliances with the crowns of England, Scotland, and Denmark. He then entered Italy with an army of 20,000 men; and being assisted by the Venetians, quickly conquered one part of the duchy, while they conquered the other; the duke himself being obliged to fly with his family to Inspruck. He then attacked Ferdinand of Spain, with three armies at once, two to act by land and one by sea; but none of these performing any thing remarkable, he was obliged to evacuate the kingdom of Naples in 1504.

In 1506 the people of Genoa revolted; drove out the nobility, chose eight tribunes, and declared Paul Nuova, a silk-dyer, their duke: after which they expelled the French governor, and reduced a great part of the Riviera. This occasioned Louis' return into Italy; where, in 1507, he obliged the Genoese to surrender at discretion: and in 1508 entered into the league of Cambray, with the other princes, who at that time wanted to reduce the overgrown power of the Venetians. Pope Julius II. who had been the first contriver of this league, very soon repented of it; and declared, that if the Venetians would restore the cities of Faenza and Rimini, which had been unjustly taken from him,

he would be contented. This was refused; and in 1509 the forces of the republic received such an entire defeat from Louis, that they agreed to restore, not only the two cities demanded by pope Julian, but whatever else the allies required.

The pope now, instead of executing his treaties with his allies, made war on the king of France without the least provocation. Louis called an assembly of his clergy; where it was determined that, in some cases, it was lawful to make war upon the pope; upon which the king declared war against him, and committed the care of his army to the Marshal de Trivulee. He soon obliged the pope to retire into Ravenna; and in 1511 Gaston de Foix, duke of Nemours, gained a great victory at Ravenna, but was himself killed in the engagement. After his death the army disbanded for want of pay: and the French affairs in Italy and every where else fell into great confusion. They recovered the duchy of Milan, and lost it again in a few weeks. Henry VIII. of England invaded France, and took Teruenne and Tournay; and the Swiss invaded Burgundy with an army of 25,000 men. In this desperate situation of affairs the queen died, and Louis put an end to the opposition of his most dangerous enemies, by negociating marriages. To Ferdinand of Spain he offered his second daughter for either of his grandsons, Charles or Ferdinand: and to renounce in favour of that marriage Milan and Genoa. This proposal was accepted; and Louis himself married the princess Mary, sister to Henry VIII. of England. This marriage he did not long survive, but died on the 2nd of January, 1514; and was succeeded by Francis I. count of Angoulesme, and the duke of Bretagne and Valois.

The new king was no sooner seated on the throne than he resolved on an expedition into Italy. In this he was at first successful, defeating the Swiss at Marignano, and reducing the duchy of Milan. In 1518 the emperor Maximilian dying, Francis was very ambitious of being his successor, and thereby restoring to France a splendid title, which had been long lost. But Maximilian, before his death, had exerted himself so much in the favour of Charles V. of Spain, that Francis found it impossible to succeed; and from that time an irreconcileable hatred took place between the two monarchs. In 1521 this ill will produced a war; which, however, might perhaps have been terminated, if Francis could have been prevailed upon to restore the town of Fontarabia, which had been taken by his admiral Bonivet; but this being refused, hostilities were renewed with greater vigour than ever; nor were they concluded till France was brought to the very brink of destruction. The war was continued with various success till the year 1524; when Francis, having invaded Italy, and laid siege to Pavia, he was utterly defeated before that city, and taken prisoner, on the 24th of February.

The mention of Charles V. the formidable antagonist of Francis I. renders it necessary to review the history of Spain, from the death of Isabella. That event happened in 1506; when Philip, archduke of Austria, came to Castile, in order to take possession of that kingdom, as heir to his mother-in-law: but he dying in a short time after, his son, Charles V. afterwards emperor of Germany, became heir to the crown of Spain. His father, at his death, left the king of France governor to the young prince, and Ferdinand, at his death, left cardinal Ximenes sole regent of Castile, till the arrival of his

grandson. This man, whose character is no less singular than illustrious, who united the abilities of a great statesman with the abject devotion of a superstitious monk; and the magnificence of a prime minister with the severity of a mendicant; maintained order and tranquillity in Spain, notwithstanding the discontents of a turbulent and high spirited nobility. When they disputed his right to the regency, he coolly shewed them the testament of Ferdinand, and the ratification of that deed by Charles; but these not satisfying them, and argument proving ineffectual, he led them insensibly towards a balcony, whence they had a view of a large body of troops under arms, and a formidable train of artillery. "Behold," said the cardinal, "the powers which I have received "from his Catholic majesty; by these I govern Castile; and will govern till the king, "your master and mine, shall come to take possession of his kingdom." A declaration so bold and determined silenced all opposition; and Ximenes maintained his authority till the arrival of Charles, in 1517.

The young king was received with universal acclamations of joy: but Ximenes found little cause to rejoice. He was seized with a violent disorder, supposed to be the effect of poison; and when he recovered, Charles, prejudiced against him by the Spanish grandees and his Flemish courtiers, slighted his advice, and allowed him every day to sink into neglect. The cardinal did not bear this treatment with his usual fortitude of spirit. He expected a more grateful return from a prince to whom he delivered a kingdom, more flourishing than it had been in any former age, and authority, more extensive and better established than the most illustrious of his ancestors had ever possessed. Conscious of his own integrity and merit, he could not, therefore, refrain from giving vent, at times, to indignation and complaint. He lamented the fate of his country, and foretold the calamities to which it would be exposed from the insolence, the rapaciousness, and the ignorance of strangers. But in the mean time he received a letter from the king, dismissing him from his councils, under pretence of easing his age of that burden which he had so long and so ably sustained. This letter proved fatal to the minister; for he expired in a few hours after reading it.

The means by which Charles obtained the empire of Germany have been already related.

Francis continued in captivity till he signed the treaty of Madrid, on the 14th of January, 1525. The principal articles of this agreement were, That he should resign to the emperor the duchy of Burgundy in full sovereignty; that he should desist from the homage which the emperor owed him for Artois and Flanders; that he should renounce all claim to Naples, Milan, Asti, Tournay, Lisle, Hesdin, &c.; that he should persuade Henry D'Albret to resign the kingdom of Navarre to the emperor, or at least should give him no assistance; that within 40 days he should restore the duke of Bourbon and all his party to their estates; that he should pay the king of England 500,000 crowns, which the emperor owed him; that when the emperor went to Italy to receive the Imperial crown, he should lend him 12 galleys, four large ships, and a land army; or, instead of it, 200,000 crowns.

All these articles the king of France promised, on the word and honour of a prince;

to execute; or, in case of non-performance, to return prisoner into Spain. But notwithstanding these professions, Francis had already protested, before certain notaries and witnesses in whom he could trust, that the treaty he was about to sign was against his will, and therefore null and void. On the 21st of February the emperor thought fit to release him from his prison, in which he had been closely confined ever since his arrival in Spain; and after receiving the strongest assurances from his own mouth that he would literally fulfil the terms of the treaty, sent him, under a strong guard, to the frontiers; where he was exchanged for his two eldest sons, who were to remain as hostages for his fidelity.

When the king returned to his dominions, his first care was to get himself absolved by the pope, from the oaths he had taken; after which he entered into a league with the pontiff, the Venetians, the duke of Milan, and the king of England, for preserving the peace of Italy. All differences, however, were at last adjusted; and a treaty was concluded at Cambray, on the 5th of August, 1528. By this treaty, instead of the possession, the emperor contented himself with reserving his rights to the duchy of Burgundy, and the 2,000,000 of crowns which were offered as a ransom for the two sons of Francis. He was likewise to discharge the penalty of 500,000 crowns, which the emperor had incurred by not marrying his niece, the princess Mary of England; and release a rich fleur de lys, which had been many years before pawned by the house of Burgundy for 50,000 crowns. The town and castle of Hesdin were also yielded; together with the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois, and all the king's pretensions in Italy. As for the allies of France, they were abandoned to the emperor's mercy, without the least stipulation in their favour; and Francis himself protested against the validity of the treaty before he ratified it, as did also his attorney-general before he registered it in parliament; but both of them with the greatest secrecy imaginable.

Nothing farther of much consequence happened during the remainder of the reign of Francis I. The war was soon renewed with Charles, who made an invasion into France, but with very bad success; nor was peace fully established but by the death of Francis, which happened on the 3rd of March, 1547. He was succeeeded by his son Henry II. who ascended the throne that very day on which he was 29 years of age. In the beginning of his reign an insurrection happened in Guienne, owing to the oppressive conduct of the officers who levied the salt tax. The king dispatched against the insurgents two bodies of troops; one commanded by the duke of Aumale, son to the duke of Guise, the other by the constable. The first behaved with the greatest moderation, and brought back the people to their duty, without making many examples: the other behaved with the utmost haughtiness and cruelty; and though the king afterwards remitted many of his punishments, yet, from that time the constable became odious to the people, while the family of Guise were highly respected.

In 1540 the king began to execute the edicts, which had been made against the protestants, with the utmost severity; and thinking even the clergy too mild in the prosecution of heresy, erected for that purpose a chamber, composed of members of the parliament of Paris. At the queen's coronation, which happened this year, he caused a

number of protestants to be burned, and was himself present at the spectacle. He was, however, so much shocked, that he could never forget it; but complained, as long as he lived, that at certain times it appeared before his eyes, and troubled his understanding.

In 1549 he concluded a peace with England, the most advantageous to France of any that had ever been made between the two nations. He afterwards offended the pope by entering into an alliance with the Turks, in order to obtain their assistance against the emperor. He made peace with Germany in 1557, and was killed soon after, in a tournament, by one count de Montgomery, who was reckoned one of the strongest knights in France, and who had done all he could to avoid this encounter with the king.

The reign of his successor, Francis II. was remarkable only for the persecution of the protestants; which became so grievous that they were obliged to take up arms in their own defence. This occasioned several civil wars, the first of which commenced in the reign of Charles IX. who succeeded to the throne in 1560. This first war continued till the year 1562, when a peace was concluded, by which the protestants were to have a free pardon and liberty of conscience. In 1565 the war broke out anew, and was continued with very little interruption, till 1569, when a peace was again concluded, upon very advantageous terms for the protestants. After this, king Charles, who had now taken the government into his hands, caressed the protestants in an extraordinary manner. He invited to court the admiral Coligni, who was at the head of the protestant party; and cajoled him so that he was lulled into a perfect security, notwithstanding the many warnings given him by his friends, that the king's fair speeches were by no means to be trusted; but he had soon reason to repent his confidence. On the 22nd of August, 1571, as he was walking from the court to his lodgings, he received a shot from a window, which carried away the second finger of his right hand, and wounded him grievously in the left arm. This he himself ascribed to the malice of the duke of Guise, the head of the catholic party. After dinner, however, the king went to pay him a visit, and amongst others made him this compliment; "You have received the wound, but it is "I who suffer;" desiring at the same time, that he would order his friends to quarter about his house, and promising to hinder the catholics from entering that quarter after it was dark. This satisfied the admiral of the king's sincerity; and hindered him from complying with the desires of his friends, who would have carried him away; and who were strong enough to have forced a passage out of Paris if they had attempted it.

In the evening the queen-mother, Catharine de Medicis, held a cabinet council, to fix the execution of the massacre of the protestants, which had been long meditated. The persons of which this council was composed were Henry, duke of Anjou, the king's brother; Gonzaga, duke of Nevers; Henry of Angoulesme, grand prior of France, and bastard brother of the king; the Marshal de Tavennes; and Albert de Gondi, count de Retz. The direction of the whole was given to the duke of Guise, to whom the administration had been entirely confided during the former reign. The guards were appointed to be in arms, and the city-officers were to dispose the militia to execute the king's orders, of which the signal was the ringing of a bell near the Louvre. Some say

that when the hour approached, which was that of midnight, the king grew undetermined; that he expressed his horrors at shedding so much blood, especially considering that the people whom he was going to destroy were his subjects, who had come to the capital at his command, and in confidence of his word; and particularly the admiral, whom he had detained so lately by his caresses. The queen-mother, however, reproached him with cowardice, and represented to him the great danger he was in from the protestants; which at last induced him to consent. According to others, however, the king himself urged on the massacre; and when it was proposed to him to take off only a few of the heads, he cried out, "If any are to die let there not be one left to reproach me with "breach of faith."

As soon as the signal was given, a body of Swiss troops, of the catholic religion, headed by the duke of Guise, the chevalier d'Angoulesme, accompanied by many persons of quality, attacked the admiral's house. Having forced open the doors, the foremost of the assassins rushed into his apartment; and one of them asked if he was Coligni; to this he answered that he was, adding, "Young man respect these grey hairs:" to which the assassin replied by running him through the body with his sword. The duke of Guise and the chevalier growing impatient below stairs, cried out to know if the business was done; and being told that it was, commanded that the body should be thrown out at the window. A soon as it fell on the ground, the chevalier, or, as some say, the duke of Guise, wiping the blood off the face, kicked it with his foot. The body was then abandoned to the fury of the populace, who, after a series of indignities, dragged it to the common gallows, to which they chained it by the feet, the head being cut off and carried to the queen-mother; who, it is said, caused it to be embalmed, and sent to Rome. The king himself went to see the body hang upon the gibbet; where, a fire being kindled under it, part was burned, and the rest scorched. In the Louvre the gentlemen belonging to the king of Navarre and the prince of Condé were murdered under the king's eye. Two of them, wounded and pursued by the assassins, fled into the bed chamber of the queen of Navarre, and jumped upon her bed, beseeching her to save their lives: and as she went to ask this favour of the queen-mother, two more, under the like circumstances, rushed into the room, and threw themselves at her feet. The queen-mother came to the window to enjoy these dreadful scenes, and the king, seeing the protestants who lodged on the other side of the river flying for their lives, called for his long gun, and fired upon them. In the space of three or four days many thousands were destroyed in the city of Paris, by the most cruel deaths which malice itself could invent. Peter Ramus, professor of philosophy and mathematics, after being robbed of all he had, his belly being first ripped open, was thrown out of a window. This so much affected Dennis Lambin, the king's professor, that though a zealous catholic, he died of terror. The first two days the king denied that it was done by his orders and threw the whole blame on the house of Guise; but on the 28th of August, he went to the parliament, avowed it, was complimented, and directed a process against the admiral, by which he was stigmatised as a traitor. Two innocent gentlemen suffered as his accomplices in a pretended plot against the life of the king, in order to set the crown on the

head of the prince of Condé. They were executed by torch light; the king and the queen mother, (with the king of Navarre and the prince of Condé by force) were spectators of this horrid fact; and they also assisted at the jubilee to thank God for the execution of such an infamous design.

This massacre was not confined to the city of Paris alone. On the eve of St. Bartholomew orders had been sent to the governors of provinces to fall upon the protestants themselves, and to let loose the people upon them: and though an edict was published, before the end of the week, assuring them of the king's protection, and that he by no means designed to exterminate them because of their religion, yet private orders were sent of a nature directly contrary; in consequence of which, the massacre, or, as an allusion to the Sicilian vespers, it was now styled the Matins of Paris, was repeated in Meaux, Orleans, Troyes, Angers, Thoulouse, Rouen, and Lyons; so that in the space of two months, 30,000 protestants were butchered: the next year, Rochelle, the only strong fortress which the protestants held in France, was besieged, but was not taken without the loss of 24,000 of the catholics who besieged it. After this a pacification ensued, on terms favourable to the protestants, but to which they never trusted.

This year the duke of Anjou was elected king of Poland, and soon after set out to take possession of his new kingdom. The king accompanied him to the frontiers of the kingdom; but during the journey was seized with a slow fever, which, from the beginning, had a very dangerous appearance. He lingered some time under the most terrible agonies both of body and mind, and at last died on the 30th of May, 1572, having lived 24 years and reigned 13. It is said that after the dreadful massacre above mentioned, this prince had a fierceness in his looks and a colour in his cheeks, which he never had before. He slept little, and never sound. He waked frequently in agonies, and had soft music to compose him again to rest.

During the first years of the reign of Henry III. who succeeded his brother Charles, the war with the protestants was carried on with indifferent success on the part of the catholics. In 1575 a peace was concluded, called, by way of eminence, the edict of pacification. It consisted of no fewer than 63 articles; the substance of which was, that liberty of conscience and public exercise of religion were granted to the reformed, without any other restriction than that they should not preach within two leagues of Paris, or any other part where the court was. Party-chambers were erected in every parliament, to consist of equal numbers of catholics and protestants, before whom all judgments were to be tried. The judgments against the admiral and in general all who had fallen in the war, or been executed were reversed; and eight cautionary towns were given to the protestants.

This edict gave occasion to the Guises to form an association in defence, as was pretended, of the catholic religion, afterwards known by the name of the Catholic league. In this league, though the king was mentioned with respect, he could not help seeing that it struck at the very root of his authority; for, as the protestants had already their chiefs, so the catholics were, by the league, to depend entirely upon the chief of the league; and were, by the very words of it, to execute whatever he commanded for the good of the

cause against any without exception of persons. The king, to avoid the bad effects of this, by the advice of his council, declared himself head of the league, and of consequence recommenced the war against the protestants, which was not extinguished as long as he lived.

The faction of the duke of Guise, in the mean time, took a resolution of supporting Charles, cardinal of Bourbon, a weak old man, as presumptive heir of the crown. In 1584 they entered into a league with Spain, and took up arms against the king; and though peace was concluded the same year, yet, in 1587, they again proceeded to such extremities that the king was forced to fly from Paris. Another reconciliation was soon after effected; but it is generally believed that the king, from this time, resolved on the destruction of Guise. Accordingly, finding that this nobleman still behaved towards him with his usual insolence, the king caused him to be stabbed, as he was coming into his presence, by his guards, on the 23rd of December, 1587. The king himself did not long survive him; being stabbed by one James Clement, a Jacobine monk, on the 1st of August, 1588. His wound at first was not thought mortal; but his frequent swooning quickly discovered his danger; and he died next morning, in the 39th year of his age, and 16th of his reign.

Before the king's death he nominated Henry Bourbon, king of Navarre, for his successor on the throne of France; but as he was a protestant, or at least one who greatly favoured their cause, he was at first owned by very few, except those of the protestant party. He met with the most violent opposition from the members of the catholic league; and was often reduced to such straits that he went to people's houses, under colour of visits, when, in reality, he had not a dinner in his own. By his activity and perseverance, however, he was at last acknowledged throughout the whole kingdom, to which his abjuration of the protestant religion contributed not a little. As the king of Spain had laid claim to the crown of France, Henry no sooner found himself in a fair way of being firmly seated on the throne, than he formally declared war against that kingdom; in which he at last proved successful, and in 1597 entered upon the quiet possession of his kingdom.

The king's first care was to put an end to the religious disputes, which had so long distracted the kingdom. For this purpose he granted the famous edict, dated at Nantes, April 13th, 1598. It re-established, in a most solid and effectual manner, all the favours that had ever been granted to the reformed by other princes; adding some which had not been thought of before, particularly the allowing them a free admission to all employments of trust, profit, and honour; the establishing chambers, in which the members of the two religions were equal; and in permitting their children to be educated, without constraint, in any of the universities. Soon after he concluded peace with Spain, upon very advantageous terms. This gave an opportunity of restoring order and justice throughout his dominions; of repairing all the ravages occasioned by the civil war; and abolishing all those innovations which had been made, either to the prejudice of the prerogatives of the crown, or the welfare of the people. His schemes of reformation indeed he intended to have carried beyond the boundaries of France. If we may believe the

duke of Sully, he had in view no less a design than the new modelling of all Europe. He imagined that the European powers might be formed into a kind of Christian republic, by rendering them as nearly as possible of equal strength; and that this republic might be maintained in perpetual peace, by bringing all their differences to be decided before a senate of wise, disinterested, and able judges: and then he thought it would be no difficult matter to overturn the Ottoman empire. The number of these powers was to be 15, viz. the Papacy, the empire of Germany, France, Spain, Hungary, Great Britain, Bohemia, Lombardy, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, the republic of Venice, the States-General, the Swiss Cantons, and the Italian Commonwealth, which was to comprehend the states of Florence, Genoa, Lucca, Modena, Parma, Mantua, and Monaco. In order to render the states equal, the empire was to be given to the king of Bavaria; the kingdom of Naples to the pope; that of Sicily to the Venetians; Milan to the duke of Savoy, who, by this acquisition was to become king of Lombardy; the Austrian Low Countries were to be added to the Dutch republic; Franche Compte, Alsace, and the country of Trent were to be given to the Swiss. With a view, it is now thought, of executing this grand project, but under pretence of reducing the exorbitant power of the house of Austria, Henry made immense preparations both by sea and land; but if he really had such a design he was prevented, by death, from attempting to execute it. He was stabbed in his coach by one Ravilliac, on the 12th of May, 1608.

While religious bigotry produced so many dreadful effects in France, it also spread devastation through a considerable proportion of the dominions of Philip II.; and ultimately occasioned the debasement of the Spanish monarchy. Philip II. had succeeded his father, Charles V. in the government of Spain, the Low Countries, and the newly formed colonies; and found an opportunity to seize Portugal on the death of Don Henry. He was not, however, able to conciliate the affections of the inhabitants, who manifested a constant disposition to revolt from his yoke. But it was in the Netherlands that his oppression produced the most fatal consequences to himself and his successors.

Towards the end of the 15th century Maximilian of Austria, son of the emperor Ferdinand III. acquired, by marrying the only daughter of the duke of Burgundy, the duchies of Brabant, Limburg, and Luxemburg; the counties of Flanders, Burgundy, Hainault, Holland, Zegland, and Namur; and the lordships of Friesland. Philip of Austria, son to Maximilian and Mary, married Jane, the daughter of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and of Isabella queen of Castile; by which means their son Charles inherited not only almost all Spain and the great countries then lately discovered in America, but also those noble provinces of the Netherlands; and was chosen emperor under the name of Charles V. Towards the latter end of the year 1527 he added to his dominions the temporalities of the bishopric of Utrecht, on both sides of the Yssel; and Henry of Bavaria, being distressed through war with the duke of Guelderland, and tired with the continued rebellion of his own subjects, surrendered to the emperor the temporalities of his diocese, which was confirmed by the pope and the states of the country. In 1536 Charles V. bought of Charles of Egmond the reversion of the duchy of Guelderland and of the county of Zutphen, in case that prince should die without issue. The same year

the city of Groningen took the oath of allegiance, and submitted to Charles V.; and in 1543 he put a garrison into the city of Cambray, and built a citadel there. Having thus united the 17 provinces as it were in one body, he ordered that they should continue for ever under the same prince, without being ever separated or dismembered; for which purpose he published in November, 1549, with the consent and at the request of the states of all the provinces, a perpetual and irrevocable edict or law, by which it was enacted, that, in order to keep all those provinces together under one and the same prince, the right of representation, with regard to the succession of a prince or princess, should take place for ever both in a direct and collateral line, notwithstanding the common laws of some provinces to the contrary. Charles had even a mind to incorporate these provinces with the Germanic body, and to make of them a circle of the empire, under the title of the circle of Burgundy, in order thereby to engage the princes of the empire to concern themselves for the preservation of those provinces. But the Netherlands, always jealous of their liberty, did not seem to like that incorporation; and when they were demanded to pay their share towards the expences of the empire, they refused it; whereupon the princes of Germany refused, in their turn, to take any part in the wars in Flanders, and looked upon those provinces as by no means belonging to the Germanic body.

Philip of Austria and his son Charles, who were born in the Netherlands, had for these provinces that natural affection which men usually have for their native country; and knowing how jealous the inhabitants were of their liberty and of the privileges granted to them by their former princes, they took great care to preserve them, and suffered willingly that the states, who were the guardians of the people's liberty and privileges, should, in a manner, share the supreme authority with them. Philip II. son to the emperor Charles V. had not the same affection for the Netherlands, nor those generous sentiments which his father had endeavoured to inspire him with. Being born in Spain, of a Portuguese woman, he had no regard but for his native country; and when he removed out of the Netherlands he left them to the weak government of a woman, to the proud and haughty spirit of Cardinal de Granville, and to the wild ambition of some lords of these provinces, who, availing themselves of the imprudent conduct and continual blunders of the council of Spain, found their private interests in the disturbances they could not fail to produce. Philip II. also, instead of the mild and moderate measures which his predecessors had successfully employed on many occasions, as best suiting the genius and the temper of the people, had recourse to the most violent and cruel proceedings; which, far from curing the evil, served only to exasperate it the more, and render it incurable. The Spaniards whom he sent thither, being born and educated in an absolute monarchy, jealous of the liberties and envious of the riches of the people, broke through all their privileges, and treated them almost after the same manner as they had done the inhabitants of their new and illegitimate dominions in America. This treatment occasioned a general insurrection. The counts Hoorn, Egmont, and the prince of Orange appearing at the head of it; and Luther's reformation having found ground about the same time in the Netherlands, and disciples joined the [illegible]; whereupon king

Philip introduced a kind of inquisition in order to suppress them, and many thousands were put to death by that court, besides those that perished by the sword; for these persecutions and encroachments had occasioned a civil war, in which several battles were fought. The counts Hoorn and Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, retiring into Holland, did, by the assistance of England and France, preserve Holland and some of the adjacent provinces, which entered into a treaty for their mutual defence at Utrecht, in 1579, and they have ever since been styled the United Provinces; but the other provinces, were reduced to the obedience of Spain, by the duke of Alva and other Spanish generals. However, their antient privileges were, in a great measure, restored; every province was allowed its great council or parliament, whose concurrence was required to the making of laws and raising money for the government; though these assemblies were too often obliged to follow the dictates of the court.

The United Provinces maintained the contest with Spain during the space of fourscore years, principally under the direction of the princes William and Morice of Nassau. They found opportunity, even while thus engaged in hostilities with a powerful enemy, to extend their commerce to the most distant parts of the globe, and establish an empire in the east, which exceeded the mother country in power, wealth, and extent of territory. Their liberties were at length acknowledged by Spain, in 1647; and from that time to their late conquest by the French, they have occasionally taken an important share in the transactions of Europe.

On the death of Henry IV. the queen-mother assumed the regency. Ravilliac was executed, after suffering horrid tortures. It is said that he made a confession, which was so written by the person who took it down, that not one word of it could ever be read, and thus his instigators and accomplices could never be discovered. The regency, during the minority of Louis XIII. was quite contemptible for cabals and intrigues of the courtiers. In 1617 the king assumed the government himself, banished the queen-mother to Blois, caused her favourite Marshal d'Ancre to be killed, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richlieu.

In 1620 a new war broke out between the catholics and protestants, which was carried on with the greatest fury on both sides; and we may judge of the spirit which actuated both parties, by what happened at the siege of a town in Quercy. This place was besieged by the king's troops, and it was resolved to make an example of the inhabitants. The latter, however, absolutely refused to surrender upon any terms. They defended themselves therefore, most desperately; and the city being at last taken by storm, they were all butchered without respect of rank, sex, or age, except 10 men. When these were brought before the king's presence he told them they did not deserve mercy: they answered, that they would not receive it; that the only favour they asked was to be hanged on trees in their own gardens; which was granted, and the place reduced to ashes. Both parties soon became weary of such a destructive war, and a peace was concluded in 1621, by which the edict of Nantes was confirmed. This treaty, however, was of no long duration. A new war broke out, which lasted till the year 1628, when the edict of Nantes was again confirmed; only the protestants were deprived of all their

cautionary towns, and consequently of the power of defending themselves in time to come. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say that in those wars, above 1,000,000 of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livers were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, 400 villages, 2000 churches, 2000 monasteries, and 10,000 houses were burnt, or otherwise destroyed during their continuance. The next year the king was attacked with a slow fever, which nothing could allay; and extreme depression of spirits, and prodigious swelling in his stomach and belly. The year after, however, he recoved, to the great disappointment of his mother, who had been in hopes of regaining her power. She was arrested, but found means to escape into Flanders, where she remained during the rest of this reign. Richlieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself was next to an enthusiast for popery, supported the protestants of Germany and Gustavus Adolphus against the house of Austria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Lewis XIII. in 1643.

While France was thus carrying on a successful war against the house of Austria, the Spanish branch of that family sustained an important loss by the defection of Portugal. Boiling with national hate, and irritated by despotic rule, the Portuguese had long sought to break their chains. A law, to compel the nobility, under pain of the forfeiture of their estates, to take up arms for the subjection of Catalonia, completed the general disaffection: and other circumstances conspired to hasten a revolution. An impenetrable plot had been forming for upwards of three years, in favour of the duke of Braganza, whose grandfather had been deprived of his right to the crown of Portugal by Philip II. The conspirators now resolved to carry their design into execution, and effected it with incredible facility.

Olivares had been so imprudent as to recal the Spanish garrison from Lisbon; very few troops were left in the whole realm of Portugal; the oppressed people were ripe for an insurrection; and the Spanish minister, in order to amuse the duke of Braganza, whose ruin he meditated, had given him the command of the arsenal. The duchess of Mantua, who had been honoured with the empty title of vice-queen, was driven out of the kingdom without a blow. Vasconcellos, the Spanish secretary, and one of his clerks, were the only victims sacrificed to public vengeance. All the towns in Portugal followed the example of the capital, and almost on the same day the duke of Braganza was unanimously proclaimed king, under the name of John IV. A revolution could not succeed more quietly to the possessions of the master of a well regulated house. Ships were immediately dispatched from Lisbon to all the Portuguese settlements in Asia and Africa, as well as to those in the islands of the Indian and Western Ocean; and they all with one accord expelled their Spanish governors. Portugal became again an independent kingdom, and by the recovery of Brazil, during the Spanish administration, had been considerably enlarged by the Dutch, its former limits was, in some measure, restored.

Louis XIV. surnamed Le Grand, succeeded to the throne when he was only five years of age. During his minority, the kingdom was torn in pieces, under the administration of his mother, Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions

between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who, from a protestant, had turned papist. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domestic wars; but the queen-mother, having made choice of cardinal Mazarine for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually among themselves, that when Louis assumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himself to be the most absolute monarch that had ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune on the death of Mazarine, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, who formed new systems for the glory, commerce, and manufactories of France; all which he carried to a surprising height. The king himself, ignorant and vain, was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, promoting the happiness of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness; and by his ambition he embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. By the impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, in the year 1685, with the dragooning of the protestants, many thousands of his most valuable subjects were destroyed, and more than half a million obliged to abandon the realm. These carried their wealth, their industry, and their skill in ingenious manufactures into England, Holland, and Germany; where they became powerful rivals to their countrymen in commerce; and irreconcileable enemies to their former sovereign.

He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himself the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his conveniency; and in the end he raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe, at the head of which was king William the III. of England. He was so well served that he made head for some years against this alliance; and France seems to have attained the highest pitch of military glory under the conduct of those renowned generals Condé and Turenne.

A treaty of pacification between Louis and the allies was concluded at Ryswic, in 1697, in which he renounced many of those places which had been subdued by his arms, but made no mention of his claim to the succession of the crown of Spain. Though the Spanish monarchy had been long declining, and had lost a very valuable territory by the defection of the Netherlands, it was nevertheless sufficiently powerful to add greatly to the influence of any prince who might unite it to his other dominions. The three competitors were the emperor, the king of France, and the elector of Bavaria; each of whom was desirous to secure the Spanish crown, if not for himself for one of his descendants. In the mean time England and Holland, unwilling that either France or Austria should obtain such an augmentation of power, and knowing that the elector of Bavaria was unable to vindicate his right, drew the plan of a treaty of a partition, by which the Spanish dominions were to have been divided between the three claimants. Louis had acceded to this treaty, but it was disliked by the emperor and king of Spain. The latter made a

which he appointed Philip, duke of Anjou, second son of the dauphin, his sole [illegible]cessor. Charles II. of Spain died in the year 1701; his choice was approved by the majority of his subjects; the young prince was crowned at Madrid, under the name of Philip V. and the Spaniards resigned themselves to the guardianship of the French monarch. England and Holland, however, unwillingly acknowledged the king, and Leopold was able to attempt no more than to wrest from him the duchy of Milan. At this juncture died James II. of England, and Louis, in violation of the treaty of Ryswick, acknowledged the pretender as king of Great Britain and Ireland. This event kindled the resentment of William and of the English nation in general, who were on the point of entering on a war with France, when Anne succeeded to the throne. She avowed her intentions to tread in the footsteps of her predecessor, entered into a close alliance with the emperor and the States-general, and took the most vigorous measures to humble the power of France. In this war the duke of Marlborough, who had the chief command of the English and Dutch forces, gained the important victories of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet; prince Eugene [illegible] great advantages to the Imperial arms, and the earl of Peterborough [illegible] on the side of Spain. The latter of these generals [illegible] who had taken the stile of Charles III. of Spain [illegible] the allies was the reduction of Barcelona. [illegible] and Madrid speedily followed; but their [illegible] army being totally defeated by the duke [illegible] the French were driven from [illegible] was deemed probable that, in another [illegible] planted on the walls of Paris; but [illegible] the British queen, Marlborough was [illegible] of Spain renounced all title to the [illegible] kingdom of Sicily, England [illegible] so long desired, [illegible] Netherlands, and the French [illegible] to the galleys, [illegible]

By the last [illegible] during the minority of the [illegible] Orleans. That nobleman, [illegible] vote, appealed to the [illegible] declared him sole regent. His [illegible] ideas of his government [illegible] had been taken from [illegible] compelled those who had enriched [illegible] to restore their [illegible] by the unsuccessful [illegible] in which [illegible] agriculture; and, by a close alliance [illegible] deemed to lay the foundation of a lasting tranquillity. This happy [illegible] however, was soon

overcast by the intrigues of Alberoni, the Spanish minister, who had formed a design of recovering Sardinia from the emperor, Sicily from the duke of Savoy, and of establishing the pretender on the throne of Britain. To accomplish these purposes he negociated with the Ottoman Porte, Peter the Great of Russia, and Charles XII of Sweden, the Turks intending to resume the war with the emperor, the two latter to invade Great Britain. But as long as the duke of Orleans retained the administration of France he found it impossible to bring his schemes to bear. To remove him, therefore, he fomented divisions in the kingdom; an insurrection took place in Brittany, and Alberoni sent small parties in disguise into the country in order to support the insurgents, and even laid plots to seize the regent himself. All of a sudden, however, the Spanish minister found himself disappointed in every one of his schemes. His partizans in France were put to death; the king of Sweden was killed at Frederickshall in Norway; the Czar, intent on making new regulations, could not be persuaded to make war upon Britain; and the Turks refused to engage in a war with the emperor, from whom they had lately suffered so much. The cardinal, nevertheless, continued his intrigues which quickly produced a war, betwixt Spain on the one part, and France and Britain on the other. The Spaniards, unable to resist the union of two such formidable powers, were soon reduced to the necessity of suing for peace; and the terms were dictated by the regent of France, and of these the dismission of Alberoni, the Spanish minister, was one. A double marriage was now set on foot; the duke of Orleans gave his daughter, Mademoiselle Montpensire, to Don Lewis, prince of Asturias; while the infanta of Spain was betrothed to her cousin, the king of France. From this time the house of Bourbon continued united; both princes being convinced that it was their interest not to waste their strength in wars against each other.

The spirit of conquest having now, in a great measure, subsided, and that of commerce taken place throughout the world in general, France became the scene of as remarkable a project in the commercial way as ever was known in any country. One John Law, a Scotchman, having being obliged to fly from his country for murder, laid the plan of a company, which might, by its notes, pay off the debt of the nation, and reimburse itself by the profits. Law had wandered through various parts of Europe, and had successively endeavoured to engross the attention of various courts. The proposal was made to Victor Amadeus, king of Sicily; but he dismissed Law with a reply, That he was not rich enough to ruin himself; but in France it was looked upon in a more favourable light; the nation being at that time involved in 200,000,000, and the regent, as well as the people in general were fond of embarking in new schemes. The bank, thus established, proceeded at first with some degree of caution, but having by degrees extended their credit to more than 80 times their real stock, they soon became unable to answer the demands made upon them; so that the company was dissolved the very same year in which it had been instituted. The confusion into which the kingdom was thrown by this fatal scheme required the utmost exertions of the regent to put a stop to it; and scarcely was this accomplished, when the king, in 1723, took the government into his own hands. The duke then became minister, but did not long enjoy this post. His

irregularities had broken his constitution and brought on a number of maladies, under which he in a short time, sunk: and was succeeded in his administration by the duke of Bourbon Conde. The king, as we have already remarked, had been married, when very young, to the infanta of Spain; though, by reason of his tender age, the marriage had never been completed. The princess, however, had been brought to Paris, and for some time treated as queen of France; but as Louis grew up it was easy to see that he had contracted an inveterate hatred against the intended partner of his bed. The minister, therefore, at last consented that the princess should be sent back; an affront so much resented by the queen, her mother, that it had almost produced a war betwixt the two nations.

The dissolution of the marriage of Louis was the last act of Condé's administration, and the procuring of a new match was the first act of his successor, cardinal Fleury. The princess pitched upon was the daughter of Stanislaus Lesozinski, king of Poland, who had been deposed by Charles XII. of Sweden. The princess was destitute of personal charms, but of an amiable disposition; and though it is probable that she never possessed the love of her husband, her excellent qualities could not but extort his esteem, and the birth of a prince, soon after their marriage, removed all the fears of the people concerning the succession.

Cardinal Fleury continued in the pacific schemes pursued by his predecessors; though they were somewhat interrupted by the war which took place in 1733. Notwithstanding the connection between that monarch and the French nation, Fleury was so parsimonious in his assistance that only 1500 soldiers were sent to relieve Dantzic, where Stanislaus himself resided, and who, at that time, was besieged by the Russians. This pitiful reinforcement was soon overwhelmed by a multitude of Russians; and Stanislaus was at last obliged to renounce all thoughts of the crown of Poland, though he was permitted to retain the title of king: and that this title might not be merely nominal, the king of France consented to bestow upon him the duchies of Bar and Lorrain: so that, after the death of Stanislaus, these territories were indissolubly united to the dominions of France. Fleury steadily pursued his pacific plans, and the disputes between Spain and England, in 1737, very little affected the peace of that kingdom; and it must be remembered, to his praise, that, instead of fomenting quarrels betwixt the neighbouring potentates, he laboured incessantly to keep them at peace. He reconciled the Genoese and Corsicans, who were at war; and his mediation was accepted by the Ottoman Porte, who, at that time carried on a successful war with the emperor of Germany, but made peace with him at the intercession of the cardinal. All his endeavours to preserve the general peace, however, proved at last ineffectual. The death of the emperor Charles VI. in 1740, the last prince of the house of Austria, set all Europe in a flame. The emperor's eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, claimed the Austrian succession, which comprehended the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, the duchy of Silesia, Austrian Suabia, Upper and Lower Austria, Stiria, Carinthia, Carniola: the four forest towns; Burgaw, Brisgaw, the Low Countries, Friuli, Tyrol, the duchy of Milan, and the duchies of Parma and Placentia. Among the many competitors who pretended a right to the share, or wholly

to inherit these extensive dominions, the king of France was one. But as he wished not to awaken the jealousy of the European princes by preferring directly his own pretensions, he chose rather to support those of Frederic III. who laid claim to the duchy of Silesia. This brought on the war of 1740.

It was terminated in 1748, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle; but to this Louis, who secretly meditated a severe revenge against Britain, only consented that he might have time to recruit his fleet, and put himself somewhat more upon an equality with that formidable power. But while he meditated great exploits of this kind, the internal tranquillity of the kingdom was disturbed by violent disputes betwixt the clergy and parliaments of France. In the reign of Louis XIV. there had been violent contests between the Jansenists and Jesuits, concerning free-will and other obscure points of theology, and the opinion of the Jansenits had been declared heretical by the celebrated bull named Unigenitus; the reception of which was enforced by the king, in opposition to the parliaments, the archbishop of Paris, and the body of the people. The archbishop, with 13 other prelates, protested against it, as the infringement of the rights of the Gallican church, of the laws of the realm, and an insult on the rights of the people themselves. The duke of Orleans favoured the bull by inducing the bishops to submit to it, but at the same time stopped a persecution which was going on against its opponents. Thus matters passed over till the conclusion of the peace, a short time after which the jealousy of the clergy was awakened by an attempt of the minister of state to inquire into the wealth of individuals of their order. To prevent this they revived the contest about the bull Unigenitus; and it was resolved that confessional notes should be obtained of dying persons, that these notes should be signed by priests who maintained the authority of the bull; and that, without such notes, no person could obtain a viaticum or extreme unction. On this occasion the new archbishop of Paris and the parliament of that city took opposite sides; the latter imprisoning such of the clergy as refused to administer the sacraments, except in the circumstances above mentioned. Other parliaments followed the example of that of Paris; and a war was kindled betwixt the civil and ecclesiastical departments of the state. In this dispute the king interfered, forbad the parliaments to take cognizance of ecclesiastical proceedings, and commanded them to suspend all prosecutions relative to the refusal of the sacraments; but instead of acquiescing, the parliament presented new remonstrances, refused to attend any other business, and resolved that they could not obey this injunction without violating their duty as well as their oath. They cited the bishop of Orleans before their tribunal, and ordered all writings, in which its jurisdiction was disputed, to be burnt by the executioner. By the assistance of the military they enforced the administrations of the sacraments to the sick, and ceased to distribute that justice to the subject, for which they had been originally instituted. The king, enraged at their obstinacy, arrested and imprisoned four of the members, who had been most obstinate, and banished the remainder to Bourges, Poictiers, and Auvergne; while, to prevent any impediment from taking place in the administration of justice by their absence, he issued letters patent, by which a royal chamber, for the prosecution of civil and criminal suits, was instituted. The counsellors refused to

plead before these new courts; and the king, finding at last that the whole nation was about to fall into a state of anarchy, thought proper to recal the parliament. The banished members entered Paris, amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants; and the archbishop, who still continued to encourage the priests in refusing the sacraments, was banished to his seat at Constans; the bishop of Orleans and Troyes were, in like manner, banished; and a calm, for the present, restored to the kingdom.

The unfortunate event of the war of 1755 had brought the nation to the brink of ruin, when Louis implored the assistance of Spain; and, on this occasion, the celebrated Family Compact was signed: by which, with the single exception of the American trade, the subjects of France and Spain are naturalized in both kingdoms; and the enemy of the one sovereign is invariably to be looked upon as the enemy of the other. At that time the assistance of Spain availed very little: both powers were reduced to the lowest ebb, and the arms of Britain were triumphant in every quarter of the globe.

The peace, concluded at Paris in the year 1763, though it freed the nation from a most destructive and bloody war, did not restore its internal tranquillity. The parliament, eager to pursue the victory they had formerly gained over their religious enemies, now directed their efforts against the Jesuits, who had obtained and enforced the bull Unigenitus. That once powerful order, however, was now on the brink of destruction. A general detestation of its members had taken place throughout the whole world. A conspiracy formed by them against the king of Portugal, and from which he narrowly escaped, had roused the indignation of Europe, and this was still farther inflamed by some fraudulent practices of which they had been guilty in France. Le Valette, the chief of their missionaries at Martinico, had, ever since the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, carried on a very extensive commerce, insomuch that he even aspired at monopolizing the whole West India trade; when the war with Britain commenced in 1755. Leonay and Gouffre, merchants at Marseilles, in expectation of receiving merchandize to the value of 2,000,000 from him, had accepted of bills, drawn by the Jesuits, to the amount of 1,500,000. Unhappily they were disappointed by the vast number of captures made by the British, in consequence of which they were obliged to apply to the society of Jesuits at large; but they, either ignorant of their true interest, or too slow in giving assistance, suffered the merchants to stop payment, and thus not only to bring ruin upon themselves, but to involve, as is usual in such cases, a great many others in the same calamity. Their creditors demanded indemnification from the society at large; and, on their refusal to satisfy them, brought their cause before the parliament of Paris. That body, eager to revenge themselves on such powerful adversaries, carried on the most violent persecutions every where against them. In the course of these the volume containing the constitution and government of the order itself was appealed to, and produced in open court. It then appeared that the order of Jesuits formed a distinct body in the state, submitting implicitly to their chief, who alone was absolute over their lives and fortunes. It was likewise discovered that they, after a former expulsion, had been admitted into the kingdom upon conditions which they had never fulfilled; and to which their chief had obstinately refused to subscribe; consequently that their existence at

The king had no sooner regained his health than he applied himself diligently to extinguish the differences which had taken place between his predecessor and the people. He removed those from their employments who had given cause of complaint by their arbitrary and oppressive conduct; and he conciliated the affection of his subjects by removing the new parliaments and recalling the old ones.

But though the prudence of Louis had suggested these compliances, he endeavoured still to preserve pure and entire the royal authority. He explained his intentions by a speech in the great chamber of parliament. "The step that he had taken to ensure the tranquillity and happiness of his subjects ought not (he observed) to invalidate his own authority; and he hoped, from the zeal and attachment of the present assembly, an example of submission to the rest of his subjects. Their repeated resistance to the commands of his grandfather had compelled that monarch to maintain his prerogative by their banishment: and they were now recalled in expectation that they would quietly exercise their functions; and display their gratitude by their obedience." He concluded with declaring "That it was his desire to bury in oblivion all past grievances; that he should ever behold, with extreme disapprobation, whatever might tend to create divisions and disturb the general tranquillity; and that his chancellor would read his ordinance to the assembly, from which they might be assured he would not suffer the smallest deviation to be made." That ordinance was conceived in the most explicit terms, and was immediately registered by the king's commands. The articles of it limited, within very narrow bounds, the pretensions of the parliament of Paris: The members were forbidden to look upon themselves as one body with the other parliaments of the kingdom, or to take any step, or assume any title, that might tend towards, or imply, such an union; They were enjoined never to relinquish the administration of public justice, except in cases of absolute necessity, for which the first president was to be responsible to the king; and it was added, that, on their disobedience, the Grand Council might replace the parliament without any new edict for the purpose. They were still, however, permitted to enjoy the right of remonstrating before the registering of edicts or letters patent, which they might conceive injurious to the welfare of the people, provided they preserved in their representations, the respect due to the throne. But these remonstrances were not to be repeated; and the parliament, if they proved ineffectual, were to register the edict objected to within a month, at farthest, from the first day of its being published: They were forbidden to issue any arrests which might excite trouble, or, in any measure, retard the execution of the king's ordinances; and they were assured by the king himself, at the conclusion of this code for their future conduct, that, as long as they adhered to the bounds prescribed, they might depend on his countenance and protection. In short, the terms on which Louis consented to re-establish the parliaments were such that they were reduced to mere cyphers, and the word of the king still continued to be the only law in the kingdom. The archbishop of Paris, who had likewise presumed to raise some commotions with regard to the bull Unigenitus, was obliged to submit, and severely threatened if he should afterwards interfere in such a cause.

The final conquests of the Corsicans, who, provoked by the oppression of their gover-

nors, had once more attempted to regain their former liberty, was the first event of importance which took place after this restoration of tranquillity: but the kingdom was yet filled with disorder from other causes. A scarcity of corn happening to take place just at the time that some regulations had been made by M. Turgot, the new financier, the populace rose in great bodies, and committed such outrages that a military force became absolutely necessary to quell them; and it was not till upwards of 500 of these miserable wretches were destroyed that they could be reduced. The king, however, by his prudent and vigorous conduct on this occasion, soon put a stop to all riots, and eminently displayed his clemency as well as prudence in the methods he took for the restoration of the public tranquillity.

The humanity of Louis was next shewn in an edict, which he caused to be registered in parliament, sentencing the deserters from his army in future to work as slaves on the public roads, instead of punishing them, as formerly, with death; and with equal attention to the general welfare of his subjects, he seized the moment of peace to fulfil those promises of economy, which, on his accession, he had given to his people. Various regulations took place in consequence; particularly the suppression of the Musquetaires and some other corps, which, being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal person than any real military service, were supported at a great expence, without any adequate return of benefit to the state.

Particular attention was also paid to the state of the marine; and the appointment of M. de Sartine, in 1776, to that department, did honour to the penètration of the sovereign. That minister, fruitful in resources, and unwearied in his application, was incessantly engaged in augmenting the naval strength of his country; and the various preparations that filled the ports and docks created no small uneasiness to the British court.

The next appointment made by the king was equally happy, and, in one respect, singular and unprecedented. M. Turgot, though possessed of integrity and industry, had not been able to command the public confidence. On his retreat M. Clugny, intendant general of Bourdeaux, had been elevated to the vacant post; but he dying in a very short space, M. Taboureau des Reaux was appointed his successor; and the king soon after associated with him in the management of the finances M. Necker, by birth a Swiss and by religion a protestant. That gentleman, in the preceding reign, had been chosen to adjust differences between the East India company and the crown; and had discharged his trust in a manner which gained the approbation of both parties. Possessed of distinguished abilities, his appointment would have excited no surprise, had it not been contrary to the constant policy of France, which carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the controul of her revenue. It now stood forward as a new instance of enlargement of mind and liberality of sentiment; and will, to posterity, mark the prominent features of the reign of Louis XVI.

Although the French monarch was of a pacific disposition, and not destitute of generosity of sentiment, yet his own and the public exultation had been openly and constantly proportioned to the success of the Americans, in their contest with Britain; the princes

of the blood and the chief nobility were eager to embark in support of the cause of freedom; and the prudence of the king and his most confidential ministers alone restrained their ardour. The fatal events of the former war were still impressed on the mind of Louis; and he could not readily consent to expose his infant marine in a contest with a nation who had so frequently asserted the dominion of the seas, and so lately broken the united strength of the house of Bourbon. At the same time he was sensible that the opportunity of humbling those haughty islanders should not be entirely neglected, and that some advantages should be taken of the present commotions in America. Two agents from the United States, Silas Deane and Dr. Benjamin Franklin, had successively arrived at Paris, and though all audience was denied them in a public capacity, still they were privately encouraged to hope that France only waited the proper opportunity to vindicate in arms the independence of America. In the mean while the American cruisers were hospitably received into the French ports; artillery and all kinds of warlike stores were freely sold or liberally granted to the distress of the colonists; and French officers and engineers, with the connivance of government, entered into their service.

Some changes were, about this time, introduced into the different departments of state. The conduct of M. Necker, in the finances, had been attended with universal approbation; and M. Tabboureau des Reaux, his colleague, had resigned his situation, but still retained the dignity of counsellor of state. To afford full scope to the genius of M. Necker, Louis determined no longer to clog him with an associate; but, with the title of director-general of the finances, submitted to him the entire management of the funds and revenue of France. In the ensuing year the count de St. Germain's secretary at war died; and the prince de Montbarey, who already filled an inferior situation in that department, was now appointed to succeed him.

In the mean time Louis' negociations with foreign courts were not neglected. He concluded a new treaty of alliance with Switzerland; vigilantly observed the motions of the different princes of Germany on the death of the elector of Bavaria; and when closely questioned by the English ambassador, lord Stormont, respecting the various warlike preparations, which were diligently continued through the kingdom, he replied, that at a time when the seas were covered with English fleets and American cruizers, and when such armies were sent to the New World as had never before appeared there, it became prudent for him also to arm for the security of the colonies and the protection of the commerce of France. The king was not ignorant, at the same time, that the remonstrances of Great Britain, and the importunities of the agents of the United States, would soon compel him to adopt some decisive line of conduct. This was hastened by a disastrous to Britain, the failure of general Burgoyne's expedition, and the capitulation of Saratoga. The news of that event was received at Paris with unbounded exultation. De Sartine, the marine superintendent, was eager to measure the naval strength of France with that of Great Britain; the queen, who had long seconded the application of the American agents, now espoused their cause with her ardour; and the

pacific inclinations of Louis being overborne by the suggestions of his ministers and the influence of his queen, it was at length determined to acknowledge the independence of the United States.

Dr. Franklin and Silas Deane, who had hitherto acted as private agents, were now acknowledged as public ambassadors from those states to the court of Versailles, and a treaty of amity and commerce was signed, between the two powers, in the month of February, 1778. The duke of Noailles, ambassador to the court of London, was, in the month of March, instructed to acquaint that court with the above treaty. At the same time he declared that the contracting parties had paid great attention not to stipulate any exclusive advantages in favour of France, and that the United states had reserved the liberty of treating with every nation whatever, on the same footing of equality and reciprocity. But this stipulation was treated by the British with contempt, and the recal of lord Stormont, their ambassador at Versailles, was the signal for the commencement of hostilities.

In the year 1780 new changes in the French ministry took place. M. Bertin had resigned the office of secretary of state; the prince de Montebray had retired from the post of secretary at war, and was succeeded by the Marquis de Segur. But the most important removal was that of M. Sartine, who had, for several years, presided over the marine department, and whose unwearied application and ability had raised the naval power of France to a height that astonished Europe: but his colleagues in the cabinet loudly accused a profusion, which would have diverted into one channel the whole resources of the kingdom; and his retreat opened a road to the marquis de Castries, who was appointed to supply his place.

This year the king fixed on the anniversary of his birth-day, to render it memorable by a new instance of humanity, and he abolished for ever the inhuman custom of putting the question as it was called by torture; a custom, which had been so established by the practice of ages, that it seemed to be an inseparable part of the constitution of the courts of justice in France. At the same time, to defray the charges of war, he continued to diminish his own expenditure; and, sacrificing his magnificence to the ease of his subjects, dismissed above 400 officers belonging to his court.

Unhappily, however, the popular discontents were excited next year by the dismission of their favourite minister, M. Necker. He had conceived the arduous but popular project of supporting a war by loans without taxes: the rigid economy which he had introduced into all the departments of the royal household, and the various resources that presented themselves to his fertile genius had supported him amidst the difficulties that attended this system. But his austerity of temper had not rendered him equally acceptable to the sovereign and his subjects; and the repeated reforms he had recommended were represented as inconsistent with the dignity of the crown; he was, therefore, in 1781, dismissed from his office of comptroller-general, and M. Joli de Fleuri, counsellor of state, was appointed to that important department. The defeat of the count de Grasse happened next year, and impressed the kingdom with general grief and consternation. Immense preparations were, however, made for the operations of 1783;

and in conjunction with the courts of Madrid and the Hague, Louis was determined this year, to make the most powerful efforts to bring the war to a conclusion. But in the midst of these preparations the voice of peace was again heard; and Louis was induced to listen to the proffered mediation of the two first potentates in Europe, the emperor of Germany and the empress of Russia. The count de Vergennes, who still occupied the post of secretary of foreign affairs, was appointed to treat with Mr. Fitzherbert, the British minister at Brussels, but who had lately proceeded to Paris to conduct this important negociation. The way was already smoothed for the restoration of the public tranquillity, by provisional articles, signed at the conclusion of the last year, between the States of America and Great Britain, and which were to constitute a treaty of peace, finally to be concluded when that between France and Britain took place. Preliminary articles were accordingly agreed upon, and signed at Versailles: these were soon after succeeded by a definitive treaty; and France, throughout her extensive dominions, beheld peace once more established. Though the late war had been attended by the most brilliant success, and the independence of America seemed to strike deep at the source of her rival's power, yet France herself had not been entirely free from inconvenience. The retreat of M. Necker had, as we have already observed, diminished the public confidence; three different persons, who had since transiently occupied his post, increased the jealousies of the people; and the failure of the celebrated Caisse d'Escompte completed the universal consternation.

That bank had been established in the year 1776. The plan of it was formed by a company of private adventurers, and its capital was fixed at 500,000*l.* sterling. The professed design of the company was to discount bills at short dates, at the rate of four per cent. per annum: but as this interest could never be an equivalent for the capital sunk by the proprietors, they were entrusted with the additional power of issuing notes to the amount of their capital, which, as they were capable at any time of being converted into specie, might be often voluntarily taken by their customers from mere convenience. The reputation of the bank soon caused its stock to sell above par; and its credit was still at the highest, when, to the astonishment of the nation, it suddenly stopt payment, on the 2nd of October, 1788. The cause assigned was an uncommon scarcity of specie, But the public suspected that the failure arose from a loan, secretly made to government; and what confirmed the suspicion was, that government, about the same time, stopped payment of the bills drawn upon them by their army in America.

Whatever was the cause of this event the king was prevailed on to extend his protection to the company. By four successive edicts the banks of Paris were ordered to receive the notes of the Caisse d'Escompte as currency; and a lottery, with a stock of *1,000,000l. sterling, redeemable in eight years, being established, the tickets were made* purchaseable in the notes of the Caisse d'Escompte. By these expedients the public's confidence in that bank was revived, its business increased, and its stocks rose to above double the original subscription; the bills from America were, at the same time, put in train of payment, and public credit was restored throughout the kingdom. Some compensation also for the expences that had been incurred during the late war was drawn

from the treaty with the United States of America. These engaged to reimburse France in the sum of 18,000,000 of livres, which had been advanced in the hour of distress; and Louis consented to receive the money, as more convenient to the States, in the space of 12 years, by 12 equal and annual payments.

The general peace was soon after followed by a particular treaty between France and Holland, which was effected, with great address, by the count de Vergennes. It included all the principles which can serve to cement, in the closets union, distinct nations, under distinct governments; and by which they may mutually participate in peace or in war, of good or of evil, in all cases administer the most perfect aid, counsel, and succour to each other. It is also prescribed, if their united good offices for the preservation of peace should prove ineffectual, the assistance they were to afford each other by sea and land. France was to furnish Holland with 10,000 effective infantry, 2000 cavalry, with 12 ships of the line and six frigates. Their high mightinesses, on the other side, in case of a marine war, or that France should be attacked by sea, were to contribute to her defence six ships of the line and three frigates; and, in case of an attack on the territory of France, the States-General were to have the option of furnishing their land contingent either in money or troops, at the estimate of 5000 infantry and 1000 cavalry. Further, if the stipulated succours should be insufficient for the defence of the party attacked, or for procuring a proper peace, they engaged to assist each other with all their forces, if necessary; it being, however, agreed that the contingent of troops, to be furnished by the States-General, should not exceed 20,000 infantry and 4000 cavalry. It was further added, that neither of the contracting powers should disarm, or make or receive proposals of peace or truce, without the consent of the other: they promised also not to contract any future alliance or engagement whatever, directly or indirectly, contrary to the present treaty, and on any treaties or negociations being proposed, which might prove detrimental to their joint interest, they pledged their faith to give notice to each other of such proposals as soon as made.

Thus was Holland now converted into the firm ally of that power, against whose encroaching spirit she had formerly armed the most powerful kingdoms of Europe; while France having asserted the independence of America against Great Britain, and having converted an antient and formidable foe into an useful friend, seemed to have attained an influence over the nations of the earth that she had never before been possessed of.

But however exalted her present situation might appear, the seeds of future commotion were already apparent to an attentive observer. The applause that had attended the parliament of Paris, in their struggles with the late king might be considered as the first dawn of freedom; the language of that assembly boldly inculcated to their countrymen their natural rights, and taught them to look with a less enraptured eye on the lustre that encompassed the throne. The war in America had contributed to enlarge the political ideas of the French: they had, on that occasion, stood forth as the champions of liberty, in opposition to regal power; and the officers who had acted on that conspicuous theatre, accustomed to speak and think without restraint, on their return imparted to the provinces of France the flame of freedom, which had been kindled in

the wilds of America. From that moment the French, instead of silently acquiescing under the edicts of their sovereign, canvassed each action with bold and rigid impartiality; while the attachment of the army, which has ever been considered as the sole foundation of despotism, gave way to the noble enthusiasm of liberty.

We have already noticed the public dissatisfaction that had attended the dismission of M. Necker; his transient successor, M. de Fleuri, had retired from the management of the finances in 1783, and the more transient administration of M. d'Ormesson had expired in the same year that gave it birth. On his retreat M. de Calonne, who had successively filled, with acknowledged reputation, the office of intendent of Mentz, and afterwards the provinces of Flanders and Artois, was nominated to the post of comptroller-general. This gentleman, flexible and insinuating, eloquent in conversation, and polished in his manners, fertile in resources, and liberal in the disposal of the public money, soon rendered himself acceptable to his sovereign. But he did not enter upon his new an arduous station favoured by the breath of popularity: he was reported to be more able than consistent, and not to have tempered the ardour of his spirit by the severity of deep research; and the people, amidst repeated loans, regretted that severe simplicity which had characterised the administration of M. Necker.

It was the bold and judicious measures of Calonne, however, that restored credit to the Caisse d'Escompte, which had stopt payment a few weeks before his accession. His next measure, in 1784, the establishment of the Caisse d'Amortissement or sinking fund, was entitled to a still higher degree of applause. The plan of that fund was simple and moderate: It was to pay annually, by government, into the hands of a board set apart for that purpose, the entire interest of the national debts, whether in stock or annuities, together with an additional sum of 120,000*l*. The annuities that would be extinguished every year were estimated at 50,000*l*.; and in that proportion the sum set apart for the redemption of the national debt would annually increase. The operation of this new fund was limited to the term of 25 years; and during that term the annual receipt of the Caisse d'Amortissement is declared unalterable, and incapable of being converted to any other object.

Although peace had been re-established throughout Europe for three years, yet the finances of France seemed scarce affected by this interval of tranquillity, and it was found requisite to close every year with a loan. The public expenditure of 1785 might probably seem to sanction this measure. It had been thought proper to fortify Cherbourg upon a large and magnificent scale; the claim of the emperor to the navigation of the Scheldt had obliged the French to increase their land forces, either to form a respectable neutrality, or to assist effectually their Dutch allies; and the marquis de Castries, fond of war, and profuse in his designs, had not suffered the navy, which M. Sartine had surrendered into his hands, to decline during the interval of peace. The treaty of commerce, concluded in the year 1786, with Great Britain, was a new source of discontent. Though regarded by the English manufacturies as far from advantageous, it excited in France still louder murmurs. It was represented as unlikely to extinguish those infant establishments, which were yet able to vie with the manufactures of England that had

attained to maturity ; and the market that it held out for the wines and oils of France was passed over in silence, while the distress of the artizan was painted in the most striking colours. But when the edict for registering the loan at the conclusion of the last year, and which amounted to the sum of 3,330,000*l.* was presented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, through the remonstrances of that assembly, assumed a more loyal and formidable aspect. The king, however, signified to the select deputation, that were commissioned to convey to him their remonstrances, that he expected to be obeyed without further delay. The ceremony of the registering accordingly took place on the next day ; but it was accompanied with a resolution, importing, That public economy was the only genuine source of abundant revenue, the only means for providing for the necessities of the state, and restoring that credit, which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin.

The king was no sooner informed of this step than he commanded the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament ; when he erased from their records the resolution that had been adopted, and observed, that though it was his pleasure that the parliament should communicate, by its respectful representations, whatever might concern the good of the public, yet he never would allow them so far to abuse his clemency as to erect themselves into the censors of his government. At the same time, more strongly to mark his displeasure at their expostulations, he superseded one of their officers, who had appeared more active in forwarding the obnoxious resolution.

M. de Calonne, however, though gratified by the approbation of his sovereign, could but feel himself deeply mortified by the opposition of the parliament. His attempts to conciliate that assembly had proved ineffectual ; and he experienced their inflexible aversion, at the critical juncture when their acquiescence might have proved of the most essential service. An anxious inquiry into the state of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure by far exceeded the revenue. In this situation, to impose new taxes was impracticable ; to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous ; to have recourse only to economical reforms would be found wholly inadequate ; and he hesitated not to declare that it would be impossible to place the finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the constitution of the state

To give weight to this reform, M. de Calonne was sensible that something more was necessary than the royal authority ; he perceived that the parliament was not a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if those plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom. Though originally a body of lawyers, indebted for their appointments to the king, there was not an attribute of genuine legislative assembly but what they seemed desirous to engross to themselves ; and they had been supported in their pretensions by the plaudits of the people, who were sensible that there was no other body in the nation that could plead their cause against royal or ministerial oppression. To suppress, therefore, the only power of controul that remained, and to render the government more arbitrary was deemed too perilous a measure : yet to leave the parliament in the full possession of their influence, an influence that the minister was

convinced would be exerted against him, was at once to render the whole system abortive.

In this dilemma, the only expedient that suggested itself was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character, and which should in a greater degree, consist of members from the various orders of the state and the different provinces of the kingdom. This promised to be a popular measure; it implied a deference to the people at large, and might be expected to prove highly acceptable. But the true and legitimate assembly of the nation, the States-General, had not met since the year 1614; nor could the minister flatter himself with the hope of attaining the royal assent to a meeting, which a despotic sovereign could not but regard with secret jealousy. Another assembly had occasionally been substituted in the room of the States-General; this was distinguished by the title of the Notables, and consisted of a number of persons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the higher orders of the state, and nominated by the king himself. The assembly had been convened by Henry IV. again by Louis XIII. and was now once more summoned by the authority of the present monarch.

The writs for calling them together were dated on the 29th of December, 1786; and they were addressed to seven princes of the blood, nine dukes and peers of France, eight field-mareschals, 22 nobles, eight counsellors of state, four masters of requests, 11 archbishops and bishops, 37 of the heads of the law, 12 deputies of the pays d'etats, the lieutenant-general, and 25 magistrates of the different towns of the kingdom. The number of members was 144, and the 29th of January, 1787, was the period appointed for their meeting.

Upon the arrival of the Notables at Paris, however, the minister found himself yet unprepared to submit his system to their inspection, and postponed the opening of the council to the 7th of February. A second delay, on the 14th of the same month, was occasioned by the indisposition of M. de Calonne himself, and that of the count de Vergennes, president of the council of finance, and first secretary of state; and a third procrastination was the necessary result of the death of the count, on the day previous to that fixed for the opening of the meeting. He was succeeded, in the department of foreign affairs, by the count de Montmorin, a nobleman of unblemished character. But his loss, at this critical juncture, was severely felt by M. de Calonne; he alone, of all the ministers, having entered, with warmth and sincerity, into the plans of the comptroller-general. The chevalier de Miromesnil, keeper of the seals, was avowedly the rival and enemy of that statesman. The mareschal de Castries, secretary of the marine department, was personally attached to M. Necker; and the Baron de Bretenil, secretary for the household, was the creature of the queen, and deeply engaged in what was called the Austrian system.

It was under these difficulties that M. de Calonne, on the 22nd of February first met the assembly of the Notables, and opened his long expected plan. He began by stating that the public expenditure had, for centuries past, exceeded the revenue; and that a very considerable deficiency had, of course, existed; that the Mississippi scheme of 1720

had, by no means, as might have been expected, restored the balance; and that under the economical administration of cardinal Fleuri the deficit still existed; that the progress of this derangement, under the last reign, had been extreme, the deficiency amounting to 3,000,000*l.* sterling at the appointment of the abbé Terray: who, however, reduced it to 1,675,000*l.*; it decreased a little under the short administrations that followed, but rose again, in consequence of the war, under the administration of M. Necker, and at his own accession to office it was 3,330,000*l.*

In order to remedy this growing evil, M. Calonne recommended a territorial impost, in the nature of the English land tax, from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; and an inquiry into the possessions of the clergy, which hitherto had been deemed sacred from their proportion of the public burdens; the various branches of internal taxation were also to undergo a strict examination; and a considerable resource was presented in mortgaging the demesne lands of the crown.

The very necessity for these reforms was combated with a degree of boldness and force of reasoning that could not fail of deeply impressing the assembly; and instead of meeting with a ready acquiescence, the comptroller-general was now launched into the boundless ocean of political controversy. M. Necker, previous to his retirement, had published his Compte rendu au Roi, in which France was represented as possessing a clear surplus of 495,000*l.* sterling: this performance had been read with avidity, and probably contributed to estrange from the author the royal countenance; but the credit of it was ably vindicated by M. de Brienne, archbishop of Thoulouse.

M. de Calonne met with a still more formidable adversary in the count de Mirabeau. This extraordinary man, restless in his disposition, licentious in his morals, but bold, penetrating, and enterprising, had occasionally visited every court in Europe. He had been admitted at one time to the confidence of the minister; and had been directed though in no ostensible character, to observe at Berlin the disposition of the successor of the great Frederic: in this capacity he was frequently exposed to neglect and disappointment; his letters were often left unanswered: disgust succeeded to admiration; and he who had entered the Prussian court the intimate friend, returned to Paris the avowed enemy of M. de Calonne. While the archbishop arraigned the understanding, the count impeached the integrity, of the comptroller-general.

The minister's design of equalizing the public burdens, and, by rendering the taxes general, diminishing the load borne by the lower and most useful classes of people, though undoubtedly great and patriotic, at once united against him the nobility, the clergy, and the magistracy; and the event was such as might be expected: the intrigues of those three bodies raised against him so loud a clamour, that, finding it impossible to stem the torrent, he not only resigned his place on the 12th of April, but soon after retired to England from the storm of persecution.

In the midst of these transactions at home, Louis' attention was also called to the state of affairs in the republic of Holland, his new and close ally. The prince of Orange had been stripped of all authority by the aristocratic party; and retiring from the Hague, maintained the shadow of a court at Nimeguen. His brother-in-law, however, the king

of Prussia, exerted his endeavours to promote the interest of the stadtholder; and having offered, in concert with France, to undertake the arduous task of composing the differences which distracted the republic, the proposal was received with apparent cordiality by the court of Versailles. At the same time it could scarcely be expected that France would become the instrument of restoring the prince of Orange to that share of power which he had before occupied, and thus abandon one of the largest and most favourite objects of her policy, the establishing a supreme and permanent controul in the affairs of Holland. In fact, the conditions which were framed by the Louvestein faction, as the basis of reconciliation, were such as plainly vindicated their design, to reduce the influence and authority of the stadtholder within very narrow limits. On his renouncing the right of filling up the occasional vacancies in the town senates, he was to be restored to the nominal office of captain-general; but he was to be restrained from marching the troops into or out of any province, without leave from the respective provinces concerned; and he was also to subscribe to a resolution, passed some time before by the senate of Amsterdam, that the command should, at all times, be revocable at the pleasure of the states. Had the prince acquiesced in these preliminaries, France would have completely attained the object of her long negociations, and, by means of the Louvestein faction, have acquired the ascendancy that she had repeatedly sought in the councils of Holland. But under the difficulties that surrounded them the prince of Orange was admirably supported and assisted by the genius, the spirit, and the abilities of his consort; she firmly rejected every measure tending to abridge any rights that had been attached to the office of stadtholdert; and M. de Rayval, the French negociator, having in vain endeavoured to overcome her resolution, broke off the correspondence between the Hague and Nimeguen, and returned to Paris, about the middle of January, 1787.

The court of Versailles had indeed long trusted to the natural strength of the republican party, and had been assiduous during the whole summer in endeavouring to second them by every species of succours that could be privately afforded. Crowds of French officers arrived daily at Holland; and either received commissions in the service of the States, or acted as volunteers in their troops. Several hundred of tried and experienced soldiers were selected from different regiments: and being furnished with money for their journey, and assurances of future favour, were dispatched, in small parties, to join the troops, and help to discipline the burghers and volunteers. A considerable corps of engineers were also directed to proceed silently, and in disguise, to Amsterdam, and to assist in strengthening the works of that city. These aids, which might have proved effectual, had contest been confined to the States of Holland and the stadtholder, were overwhelmed in the rapid invasion of the Prussians; and the court of Berlin had taken its measures with so much celerity, and the situation of the republicans was already become so desperate, that it was doubtful whether their affairs could be restored by any assistance that France was capable of immediately administering. Yet on Great Britain fitting out a strong squadron of men of war at Portsmouth to give confidence to the operations of the king of Prussia, the court of Versailles also sent orders to equip 16 sail of the line at Brest, and recalled a small squadron, which had been commissioned on a

writing or speaking to any person, out of his own house before his departure. These orders were served at the same instant; and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the transaction, their magistrates were already on the road to their place of banishment.

Previous to their removal, however, they had presented a remonstrance on the late measures of government, and the alarming state of public affairs. In stating their opinions on taxes they declared that neither the parliaments nor any other authority, excepting that of the three estates of the kingdom, collectively assembled, could warrant the laying of any permanent tax upon the people: and they strongly enforced the renewal of those national assemblies, which had rendered the reign of Charlemagne so great and illustrious.

The king had endeavoured to soothe the Parisians by new regulations of economy, and by continual retrenchments in his household; but these instances of attention, which once would have been received with the loudest acclamations, were now disregarded, under their affliction for the absence of their parliament. His majesty, therefore, in order to regain the affections of his subjects, consented to restore that assembly, abandoning, at the same time, the stamp-duty and his territorial impost, which had been the sources of dispute. These measures were, however, insufficient to establish harmony between the court and the parliament. The necessities of the state still continued; nor could the deficiency of the revenue be supplied but by extraordinary resources, or a long course of rigid frugality. About the middle of November, 1787, in a full meeting of the parliament, attended by all the princes of the blood and the peers of France, the king entered the assembly, and proposed two edicts for their approbation; one was for a new loan of 450,000,000, near 19,000,000 sterling; the other was for the re-establishment of the protestants in all their antient civil rights; a measure which had long been warmly recommended by the parliament, and which was probably now introduced to procure a better reception to the loan.

On this occasion the king delivered himself in a speech of uncommon length, filled with professions of regard for the people, but at the same time strongly expressive of the obedience he expected to his edicts. Louis probably imagined that the dread of that banishment, from which the members had been so lately recalled, would have insured the acquiescence of the assembly; but no sooner was permission announced for every member to deliver his sentiments, than he was convinced that their spirits remained totally unsubdued. An animated debate took place, and was continued for nine hours; when the king, wearied by perpetual opposition, and chagrined at some freedoms used in their debates, suddenly rose, and commanded the edict to be registered without further delay. This measure was most unexpectedly opposed by the duke of Orleans, first prince of the blood; who considered it as an infringement of the rights of parliament, and protested against the whole proceedings of the day, as being thereby null and void. Though Louis could not conceal his astonishment and displeasure at this decisive step, he contented himself with repeating his orders; and immediately after, quitting the assembly, retired to Versailles.

On the king's departure, the parliament confirmed the protest of the duke of Orleans; and declared, that as their deliberations had been interrupted, they considered the whole business of that day as of no effect.

In order to subdue the opposition of the parliament, Louis had recourse to alternate measures of severity and mildness; but finding all these ineffectual, he again summoned, in the beginning of May, 1788, the assembly of the Notables, and laid before them his plan to establish a supreme assembly, to be composed of the princes of the blood, peers of the realm, great officers of the crown, the clergy and mareschals of France, governors of provinces, knights of different orders, a deputation of one member from every parliament, and two members from the chambers of council; and to be summoned as often as the public emergency, in the royal opinion, should render it requisite. The Notables listened in silent deference to the project of their sovereign, but the parliament of Paris received it with every symptom of aversion. Several peers of the realm, while they were lavish in their professions of attachment to the king, refused to enter upon those functions which he had assigned them in their proposed plenary court, alledging that its being erected was prejudicial to the true interests both of the king and the people. The different parliaments of the kingdom at the same time expressed their feelings in the most glowing language; and strongly urged the necessity of calling together the States-General, the lawful council of the kingdom, as the only means of restoring the public tranquillity.

Louis now plainly saw that a compliance with the public wishes for the re-establishment of the States-General was absolutely necessary, in order to avoid the calamities of a civil war, which impended upon his refusal. In that event he must have expected to have encountered the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and example of their magistrates: the peers of the realm had expressed the strongest disapprobation of his measures; nor could he even depend any longer on the support of the princes of his blood: but what afforded most serious matter of alarm was the spirit lately displayed among the military; who, during the disturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their swords against their countrymen; and many of whose officers, so recently engaged in establishing the freedom of America, publicly declared their abhorrence of despotism.

It was not, however, till after many a painful struggle, that Louis could resolve to restore an assembly, whose influence must naturally overshadow that of the crown, and whose jurisdiction would confine within narrow limits the boundless power he had inherited from his predecessor. In the two preceding reigns the States-General had been wholly discontinued; and though the queen-regent, during the troubles which attended the minority of Louis XIV. frequently expressed her intention of calling them together, she was constantly dissuaded by the representations of Mazarin. It is probable that the present monarch still flattered himself with the hope of being able to allure the members of that assembly to the side of the court; and having employed them to establish some degree of regularity in the finances, and curb the spirit of the parliaments, that he would again have dismissed them to obscurity.

Under these impressions an arret was issued in August, fixing the meeting of the States-General to the first of May in the ensuing year; and every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public during the interval. New arrangements took place in the administration, and M. Necker, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the finances; the torture, which, by a former edict, had been restricted in part, was now entirely abolished; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law; and it was decreed that in future sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of three judges.

The time appointed for the convention of the States-General was now approaching; and the means of assembling them formed a matter of difficult deliberation in the cabinet. The last meeting, in 1614, had been convened by application to the bailiwicks. But this mode was liable to several strong objections; the bailiwicks had been increased in number and jurisdiction, several provinces having, since that period, been united to France; and the numbers and equality of the members were no less an object of serious attention: it was not till the close of the year therefore that the proposal of M. Necker was adopted, which fixed the number of deputies at 1000 and upwards, and ordained that the representatives of the third estate, or commons, should be equal in number to those of the nobility and clergy united.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the States-General; but the moment of that assembly's meeting was far from auspicious: The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours: and unanimity, that had been expected from the different orders of the states, was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed, by the suspicions of the people, to the intrigues of the court, who were supposed already to repent of the hasty assent which had been extorted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increased the general discontent; and the people, pressed by hunger and inflamed by resentment, were ripe for a revolt. The sovereign also, equally impatient of the obstacles he continually encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; while the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again established, and was attended by the immediate removal of M. Necker. The dismission of that minister, so long the favourite of the public, was the signal of open insurrection; the Parisians assembled in myriads; the guards refused to oppose and stain their arms with the blood of their fellow-citizens; the count d'Artois and the most obnoxious of the nobility thought themselves happy in eluding by flight the fury of the insurgents; and in a short time a revolution was accomplished, the most remarkable perhaps of any recorded in history.

CHAPTER VII.

THE REVOLUTION IN FRANCE——*Its causes and effects till the treaty at Amiens.*

IN recording the history of the few years which have elapsed since the commencement of the French revolution, we attempt a task which appears impossible to perform with success. The events which have taken place are so numerous and important that our limits will not permit us to relate them so fully as might be desirable, while the conduct of the principal actors has been so variously represented by their partizans and their enemies, that it is very difficult to delineate their characters with that impartiality which we would wish to exercise. We can, therefore, only hope in the present instance to give a succinct account of the leading facts, sufficiently diffuse to recal them to the recollection of the reader; and, on some future occasion, enter more largely into the secret springs by which these events have been produced.

The following are some of the principal causes to which the French revolution has been assigned. That 130,000 clergy and 200,000 nobles were exempted, at least in a certain degree, from the payment of taxes. This privilege has been represented by the advocates of the old government as of trifling consideration, while the friends of the revolution have probably exaggerated its importance. That the revenue was levied in the most oppressive manner, being managed by farmers general, who acquired enormous fortunes. That the court of Paris had been exceedingly corrupt, and the immense power with which the monarch was invested frequently intrusted with a favourite mistress. This was not the case, however, under Louis XVI.; but he is considered as having but too favourable an ear to the councils of his queen. That a spirit of discontent pervaded several of the orders of society. The inferior orders of clergy, excluded from all chance of preferment, regarded their superiors with jealousy and envy, and were ready to join the laity of their own rank in any popular commotion. The inferior provincial noblesse beheld with contempt and indignation the vices and the power of the courtiers; and the higher nobility wished to diminish the power of the crown. The practising lawyers, almost entirely excluded from the chance of becoming judges, wished eagerly for a change of affairs, not doubting but their talents and professional skill would render them necessary amidst any alterations that could occur. Accordingly they were the first instruments in producing the revolution, and have been its most active supporters. The monied interest wished eagerly for the downfal of the antient nobility. For 40 years the principle of liberty had been disseminated with eagerness in France, by some men of great talents, as Rousseau, Helvetius, and Raynal, to whom the celebrated Montesquieu had led the way. Besides these there was in France a vast multitude of what were called men of letters. All these were deeply engaged on the side of some kind of political reform. The men of letters, in Paris alone, are said to have amounted to 20,000. One of the last acts of the administration of the archbishop of Tholouse was

on the 5th of July, 1788, to publish a resolution of the king in council, inviting all his subjects to give him their advice with regard to the state of affairs. This was considered as a concession of an unlimited liberty of the press; and it is scarcely possible to form an idea of the infinite variety of political publications, which, from that period, diffused among the people a dissatisfaction with the order of things in which they had hitherto lived.

The established religion of France had, for some time past, been gradually undermined. It had been solemnly assaulted by philosophers, in various elaborate performances; and men of wit, among whom Voltaire took the lead, had attacked it with the dangerous weapon of ridicule. The Roman Catholic religion is much exposed, in this respect, in consequence of the multitude of false miracles and legendary tales with which its history abounds. Without discriminating betwixt the respectable principles on which it rests, and the superstitious follies by which it had been defaced, the French nation learned to laugh at the whole, and rejected, instead of reforming, the religion of their fathers. Thus the first order in the state had already begun to be regarded as useless, and the minds of men were prepared for important changes. It may not here be improper just to mention the society of the Illuminati, concerning which so much has been written by the abbé Barrnel and professor Robison, and so variously received by different descriptions of readers. This society is said to have been founded on the 1st of May, 1776, by Dr. Adam Weishaupt, professor of canon law in the university of Ingoldstadt. The real object, as it is asserted, of this order, was, by clandestine arts, to overturn every government and every religion; to bring the sciences of civil life into contempt; and to reduce mankind to that imaginary state of Nature when they had livid independent of each other, on the spontaneous productions of the earth. Its avowed object, however, was very different. It professed to diffuse from secret societies, as from so many centres, the light of science over the world; to propagate the purest principles of virtue; and to reinstate mankind in the happiness which they enjoyed during the golden age, fabled by the poets. They adopted somewhat of the system of the free-masons, with the addition of a variety of new and mystical ceremonies. They had many members in France, among whom were the duke of Orleans, Mirabeau, Seyes, and Condoreet.

To all these causes, which might contribute toward the French revolution, may be added a general scarcity of grain, which occurred about that period. On Sunday, the 13th of July, 1788, about nine in the morning, without any eclipse, a dreadful darkness suddenly overspread several parts of France. It was the prelude of such a tempest as is unexampled in the temperate climates of Europe. Wind, rain, hail, and thunder seemed to contend in impetuosity; but the hail was the great instrument of ruin. Instead of the rich prospects of an early autumn, the face of nature, in the space of an hour presented the dreary aspect of universal winter. The soil was converted into a morass, the standing corn beaten into a quagmire, the vines broken to pieces, the fruit-trees demolished, and unmelted hail lying in heaps, like rocks of solid ice. Even the robust forest trees were unable to withstand the fury of the tempest. The hail was composed of enormous solid and angular pieces of ice, some of them weighing from eight to ten ounces. The country people, beaten down in the fields, on their way to church, amids-

this concussion of the elements, concluded that the last day was arrived; and scarcely attempting to extricate themselves, lay despairing and half suffocated, amidst the water and the mud, expecting the immediate dissolution of all things. The storm was irregular in its devastations. While several rich districts were laid entirely waste, some intermediate portions of country were comparitively little injured. One of 60 square leagues had not a single ear of corn or a fruit of any kind left. Of the 66 parishes in the district of Pontoise 43 were entirely desolated, and of the remaining 23 some lost two-thirds and others half their harvest. The isle of France and the Orleannois appear to have suffered chiefly. The damage there, upon a moderate estimate, amounted to 80,000,000 of livres, or between three or four millions sterling. Such a calamity must, at any period, have been severely felt; but occurring on the eve of a great political revolution, and amidst a general scarcity throughout Europe, it was peculiarly unfortunate, and gave more embarrassment to the government than perhaps any other event whatever. Numbers of families found it necessary to contract their mode of living for a time, and to dismiss their servants, who were thus left destitute of bread. Added to the public discontent and political dissensions, it produced such an effect upon the people in general, that the nation seemed to have changed its character: and instead of that levity, by which it had ever been distinguished, a settled gloom now seemed fixed on every countenance.

The States had been summoned to meet at Versailles, on the 27th of April, and most of the deputies arrived at that time: but the elections for the city of Paris not being concluded, the king deferred the commencement of their sessions till the 4th of May. During this period the members, left in idleness, began to find out and form acquaintance with each other. Among others a few members from Brittany (Bretagne) formed themselves into a club, into which they gradually admitted many other deputies, that were found to be zealous for the public cause, and also many other persons who were not deputies. This society, thus originally established at Versailles, was called the Comité Breton: and was one day destined, under the appellation of the Jacobin Club to give laws to France, and to diffuse terror and alarm throughout Europe. On the other side, the aristocratic party established conferences at the house of Madame Polignac, for the purpose, it is said, of uniting the nobles and the clergy.

An event occurred at this time which all parties ascribed to some malicious motive. In the populous suburb of St. Antoine, a M. Reveillon carried on a great paper manufactory. A false report was spread that he intended to lower the wages of his workmen, and that he had declared that bread was too good for them, and that they might subsist very well on potatoe-flour. A commotion was raised, he was burnt in effigy, and his house was burnt and pillaged by the mob, who were not dispersed till the military had been called in and much carnage ensued. The popular party asserted that the commotion had been artfully excited by the party of the queen and the count d'Artois, to afford a pretence for bringing great bodies of the military to the neighbourhood, to overawe the States-General, or induce the king more decisively to resolve on assembling that body at

Versailles in preference to Paris, where they and the popular minister M. Necker wished it to be held.

M. Barretin, the keeper of the seals, next addressed the assembly, in a congratulatory and uninteresting speech. He was followed by the popular minister, M. Necker, who spoke for three hours. Though much applauded on account of the clear financial details which his speech contained, he encountered a certain degree of censure from all parties, on account of the cautious ambiguity which he observed with regard to the future proceedings of the States-General.

Next day the three orders assembled separately. The deputies of the third estate amounted to 600 in number, and those of the nobles and clergy to 300 each. During their first sittings, much time was spent in unimportant debates about trifling points of form; but the first important question that necessarily became the subject of their discussion was the verification of their powers, or production of the commission of the members, and investigation of their authenticity. The commons (third estate) laid hold of this as a pretext for opening the grand controversy, whether the States-General should sit in one or in three separate chambers. They sent a deputation, inviting the nobles and the clergy to meet along with them in the common hall, for the purpose of verifying their powers in one common assembly. In the chamber of the clergy 114 members voted for the performance of this ceremony in the general assembly, and 133 against it. But in the more haughty order of the nobles the resolution for the verification in their own assembly was carried by a majority of 188 against 47. The commons paid no regard to this, but suffered five weeks to pass away in total inactivity.

The nation had expected much from the assembling of the States-General, and learnt the news of their inaction with no small degree of concern. The third estate was naturally popular, and the public censure could not readily devolve upon that favourite order. Moreover, from the first period of that assembling, the commons made every effort to augment their own natural popularity. They admitted all persons promiscuously into the galleries, and even into the body of their hall. No restraint was attempted to be laid upon the most vehement marks of popular applause or censure. Lists of the voters' names were publicly taken and sent to Paris upon every remarkable occasion; and the members suddenly found themselves become, according to their political sentiments, the objects of general execration or applause. The new and bold notions of liberty that were daily advanced by the leaders of the third estate were received with acclamations by their hearers. The capital became interested in the issue of every debate; and the political fervour was eagerly imbibed by the nation with that vivacity which is so peculiar to the French. The commons accused the nobles of obstinately impeding the business of the state, by refusing to verify their powers in one common assembly. The accusation was swallowed by the multitude, who saw not, or were unwilling to see that the attack was made by their own favourite order. In the mean time the nobles became more and more unpopular. Their persons were insulted, new publications daily came forth, and were greedily bought up, which reviled their own

order, and represented them as an useless or pernicious body of men, whose existence ought not to be tolerated in a free state. Whoever adhered to them was branded with the odious appellation of Aristocrate. The clergy, from the influence of the parish cures or parsons, seemed ready to desert their cause. They were even opposed by a minority of their own body, which derived lustre from having at its head the duke of Orleans, the first prince of the blood. Still, however, the majority of the nobles remained firm; well aware that if they once consented to sit in the same assembly, and to vote promiscuously with the ambitious and more numerous body of the commons, their whole order and all its splendid privileges must speedily be overthrown.

The leaders of the commons saw the change that was taken place in the minds of men; and they at length regarded the period as arrived when they thought to emerge from their inactivity, and execute the daring project of seizing the legislative authority in their country. They declared that the representatives of the nobles and the clergy were only the deputies of particular incorporations, whom they would allow to sit and vote along with themselves; but who had no title in a collective capacity to act as the legislators of France. For conducting business with more facility, they appointed 20 committees. In consequence of a proposal by the abbé Sieyes, a final message was sent to the privileged orders, requiring their attendance as individuals, and intimating that the commons as the deputies of 96 out of every 100 of their countrymen, were about to assume the exclusive power of legislation. None of the nobles obeyed this summons; but the three curés Messrs. Cesve, Ballard, and Jalot, presented their commissions, and were received with loud acclamations. They were next day followed by five more, among whom where Messrs. Gregoire, Dillon, and Bodineau. After some debate concerning the appellation which they ought to assume, the commons, with such of the clergy as had joined them, solemnly voted themselves the sovereign legislators of their country, under the name of the National assembly. The result of the vote was no sooner declared than the hall resounded with shouts from the immense concourse of spectators of "Vive le Roi et "vive l'assemblé nationale," "Long live the king and the national assembly." M. Bailey was chosen president for four days only, Messrs. Camus and Pison de Galand secretaries, and the assembly proceeded to business.

The popular cause now gained ground so fast, that, on the 19th of June, a majority of the clergy voted for the verification of their powers in common with the national assembly, and they resolved to unite with them the following day.

The nobles, being now convinced that unless they made a decisive stand their cause was finally lost, prevailed on the king to hold a royal session on the 23d. Louis, on this occasion, read a discourse, in which he declared null and void the resolutions of the 17th, but at the same time presented the plan of a constitution for France. It contained many good and patriotic principles, but preserved the distinction of orders and the exercise of letters de cachet; it said nothing about any active share in the legislative power to be possessed by the States-General, and was silent both about the responsibility of ministers and the liberty of the press. The king concluded by commanding the deputies immediately to retire, and to assemble again on the following day. He then withdrew,

and was followed by all the nobles and a part of the clergy. The commons remained in gloomy silence on their seats, but at length, encouraged by Mirabeau and Camus, passed some strong resolutions, and avowed their determination to adhere to their former decrees. The majority of the clergy and a considerable number of the nobility joined them, and the rest met with them soon after by the command of the king.

The situation of France was now truly alarming; the common people were agitated by the arraigns of orators and a multitude of inflammatory publications, while the soldiers were so far gained over to the popular interest, as repeatedly to refuse to employ their arms in the suppression of riots. Crowds of foreign mercenaries were collected from all parts of France into the neighbouroood of Paris and Versailles; and it was generally believed that the most violent measures would be resorted to, to re-establish the old system of regal and aristocratic influence. On the 12th of July the symptoms of tumult were visible in various parts of the metropolis, and the prince De Lembesq, grand ecuyer of France, being ordered to advance with his regiment of cavalry, and take post at the Thuilleries, wounded an old man who was walking in the gardens. The consequences of this act of violence were such as might have been expected; a shout of execration instantly arose; the cry to arms was heard; the military were assaulted on all sides; the French guards joined their countrymen, and compelled the Germans, overpowered by numbers, and unsupported by the rest of the army, to retire.

All order was now at an end, and as night approached an universal terror diffused itself through the city. Bands of robbers were collecting; and from them or from the foreign soldiery, a general pillage was expected. The night passed away in consternation and tumult. It was found in the morning that the hospital of St. Lazare was already plundered. The alarm bells were rung; the citizens assembled at the Hotel de Ville, and adopted a proposal that was there made, of enrolling themselves as a militia for general defence, under the appellation of the national guard. This day and the succeeding night were spent in tolerable quietness, without any attempt on the part of the army. On the morning of the memorable 14th of July it was discovered that the troops encamped in the Champs Elisées had moved off, and an immediate assault was expected. The national guard now amounted to 150,000 men; but they were in general destitute of arms. They had assumed a green cockade; but, on recollecting that this was the livery of the count d'Artois, they adopted one of red, blue, and white. M. de la Salle was named commander in chief, officers were chosen, and detachments sent around in quest of arms. In the Hotel des Invalides upwards of 30,000 stand of arms were found, along with 20 pieces of cannon; a variety of weapons was also procured from the garde-meuble de la couronne, and from the shops, armourers, cutlers, &c.

The celebrated fortress of the Bastile was an object of much jealousy to the Parisians. At 11 o'clock in the morning M. de la Rosiere, at the head of a numerous deputation, waited upon M. de Launy the governor, who promised, along with the officers of his garrison, that they would not fire upon the city unless they should be attacked. But a report was soon spread through Paris that M. de Launy had, a short time after, admitted into the fortress a multitude of persons and then massacred them. A sudden resolution

was adopted of assaulting the Bastile; an immense and furious multitude rushed into its outer, and soon forced their way into its inner courts, where they received and returned a severe fire for the space of an hour. The French guards, who were now embodied into the national guards, conducted the attack with skill and coolness: they dragged three waggons, loaded with straw, to the foot of the walls, and there set them on fire; the smoke of these broke the aim of the garrison, while it gave no disturbance to the more distaint assailants. The besieged multitude pressed the attack with incredible obstinacy and vigour for the space of four hours; the garrison was in confusion, and fired their muskets in the ranks; the governor, in despair, thrice attempted to blow up the fortress. A capitulation, when at last sought, was refused to the garrison, and an unconditional surrender took place. The governor and M. de Losine Salbrai, his major, a gentleman of distinguished humanity and honour, became victims of popular fury, in spite of every effort that could be made for their protection; but the French guards succeeded in procuring the safety of the garrison. Only seven prisoners were found in the Bastile. A guard was placed in it, and the keys were sent to the celebrated M. Brissot de Warville, who, a few years before, had inhabited one of its caverns.

The remaining part of this eventful day was spent at Paris in a mixture of triumph and alarm. In the pocket of the governor of the Bastile a letter was found, encouraging him to resistance, by the promise of speedy succours, written by M. de Flesselles, the prevot de marchands, or a chief city-magistrate, who had pretended to be a most zealous patriot. This piece of treachery was punished by instant death; and his bloody head was carried through the city on a pole along with that of M. de Launey. At the approach of night a body of troops advanced towards the city at the Barrier d'Enfer. The new national guard hurried thither, preceded by a train of artillery, and the troops withdrew upon the first fire: barricadoes were every where formed, the alarm bells were rung, and a general illumination continued during the whole of this night of confusion.

A few days before these commotions took place M. Necker had been dismissed from his office, and a new ministry had been formed, at the head of which, though not officially, was the count d'Artois. These leaders concealed from the king the disturbances which had arisen, but at length found it necessary to seek their safety by flight; and thus began an emigration attended with the most important consequences. The whole of the late ministry escaped excepting M. Foulon. His character, it may well be imagined, was extremely unpopular; for he is said to have asserted that he would make the people of Paris eat hay. He retired to the country, but was seized by his own vassals and brought to Paris with a bundle of hay tied to his back. In spite of every effort by M. Baily and Fayette to procure him a fair trial, he was carried to the place de Greve, and hanged at a lamp-iron by the enraged multitude. His son-in-law, M. Berthier, attempting to defend himself against a similar fate, fell, covered with wounds. Their heads were carried round on poles; and thus the populace became habituated to the sight of blood and murder: they were even taught, by popular songs, to glory in such actions, and particularly by the well known song ca-ira.

During the remainder of the year 1789 the national assembly passed many important

decrees. A proposition was made by two of the nobility that the exclusive privileges of their order should be for ever abolished, and all taxes levied in proportion to the wealth of the contributors. The privileged provinces, as well as the different incorporations, surrendered their respective rights, that every man, village, and district in the nation might be put upon a footing of equality. The catholic clergy were first stript of the tithes, and had afterwards the church lands confiscated for the service of the state. A provision was, however, made for their maintenance. The parliaments of the kingdom, who had formerly shewn themselves such zealous opposers of despotic power, were also suspended from the exercise of their functions. Assignats or assignments were issued upon the church property, which were received for the payment of taxes or for the purchase of confiscated lands. In the mean time every part of France was perplexed with rumours, and agitated with tumults. The king and national assembly were obliged to return to Paris, and there held their sittings in the midst of confusion and personal danger.

In 1790 monasteries were suppressed, hereditary titles were abolished, a new oath was prescribed to the clergy, and some attempts were made to re-organize the navy. But one of the most splendid events of the year was the commemoration of the destruction of the Bastile. The army had been much disorganized; and it was resolved to attempt to unite all its branches, as well as the whole departments of the state, in one common attachment to the new order of things, by collecting into one place deputations for the purpose of swearing fidelity to the new constitution. In the middle of the Champ de Mars an altar was erected, at which the civic oath, as it was called, was to be taken. Around the altar an amphitheatre was thrown up, capable of containing 400,000 spectators; 9000 workmen were employed in this operation; and the people of Paris, fearing lest the plan might not be completed, assisted in the labour. All ranks of persons, the nobles, clergy, and even ladies, with the eagerness for novelty so peculiar to that people, united their efforts. Crowds of foreigners, as well as natives, hurried to the capital, to be present at this solemnity, which was called the Confederation. The long expected 14th of July at length arrived. At six o'clock in the morning the procession was arranged on the Boulevards, and consisted of the electors of the city of Paris, the representatives of the commons, the administrators of the municipality, a battalion of children, with a standard inscribed "The hopes of the nation;" deputies from the troops of France, wherever quartered, and of every order, along with deputies from all the departments; to these were added immense detachments of the military and of the national guards, along with an almost infinite multitude of drums, trumpets, and musical instruments. The procession was extremely splendid, as every district had its peculiar decorations. The national assembly passed through a grand triumphal arch, and the king and queen, attended by the foreign ministers, were placed in a superb box. After a solemn invocation to God, the king approached the altar, and, amidst the deepest silence, took the following oath. "I, the king of the French do swear to the nation that I will employ the whole power, delegated to me by the constitutional law of the state, to maintain the constitution, and enforce the execution of the law." The president of the national assembly then went up to the altar, and took the civic oath. "I swear to be

faithful to the law and the king; and to maintain, with all my powers, the constitution decreed by the national assembly, and accepted by the king." Every member of the assembly, standing up, said, "That I swear." La Fayette, than advancing, took the oath for himself; the other deputies of the national guards pronouncing after him, "That I swear;" and these words were solemnly pronounced by every individual of this immense assembly. Te Deum was then sung. The performance was sublime beyond the powers of description. Never, perhaps, before was there such an orchestra, or such an audience: their numbers baffled the eye to reckon, and their shouts, in full chorus, rent the skies. It is impossible to enumerate all the means which were employed to add splendour to this day. It ended with a general illumination, and no accident disturbed the public tranquillity.

This year M. Necker, having lost his interest with all parties, retired into Switzerland with disgust.

In the spring of 1791 hostile appearance on the frontiers became very alarming. A corps of emigrants were assembled on the borders of Alsace, and reviewed by the prince of Condé. While these and their friends at home were waiting for the signal of revolt, it was suddenly announced from the Thuilleries, on the 21st of June, that the king, the queen, the dauphin, with monsieur and madame, had quitted the palace and the capital without leaving any information of their intention or their route. The emotion excited by this news among the multitude was a mixture of consternation and rage. The national assembly, however, acted with much coolness. They instantly took upon themselves the government, and decreed their sittings permanent. They sent messengers at the same time in all directions, to attempt to lay hold of the fugitves. These had taken different routs. Monsieur and madame arrived safely at Brussels, on the 23d. The king, queen, and their children, when they came to a considerable distance from the capital, were furnished by Bouillé with a guard of dragoons, under a pretence of protecting treasure for the pay of the troops. At the distance of 156 miles, and when only a few leagues from the frontiers, they were arrested at Menehould by the post-master, M. Dronet, formerly a dragoon in the regiment of Condé. At half past seven o'clock in the evening the carriages stopt to change horses at his house; he thought he recollected the queen, and imagined that the king's face resembled the impressions stamped upon assignats. The escort of dragoons increased the suspicion. He suffered them to depart at 11 o'clock without notice; but taking a companion with him he went a shorter road to Varennes. With the assistance of the post-master there he gave the alarm, and overturned a carriage on the bridge, which detained the royal travellers till the national guard of the place had assembled, and the arrest was effected without bloodshed. They were brought back to Paris by a deputation from the assembly. At his departure the king had imprudently left behind him a memorial, in which he declared that he never had thought any sacrifice too great for the restoration of order: but that the destruction of the kingdom and the triumph of anarchy being the only reward of all his efforts, he thought it necessary to depart from it. He then takes a review of the faults of the new

constitution, the grievances he has suffered, and protests against every thing that he had been compelled to do during his captivity.

The flight of the monarch seemed a signal for emigration. Many of the aristocratic party sent in resignations of their seats in the national assembly. Troops were levied on the frontiers in the king's name, who took care, however, to disavow any connection with such a procedure.

A considerable calm through France followed these events, and afforded opportunity to perfect the new constitution. It begins with a solemn declaration of the rights of a man and a citizen, declaring that no man can be accused, arrested, or detained, except in cases determined by the law, and according to the forms which the law has prescribed. That every citizen may freely speak, write, and publish his sentiments ; subject, however, to answer for every abuse of that liberty, in cases determined by the law. That he has also a right, personally, or by his representatives, to testify his consent, as well as to the enacting of laws, as the levying of taxes. That all citizens are admissable to places and employments, should contribute equally to all public expences in proportion to their means ; and, on conviction of the same crimes, be subject to the same punishments. The kingdom was decreed to be one and indevisable, its territory was distributed into 83 departments, each department into districts, and each district into cantons. The constitution was declared to be representative.

The French constitution is representative ; the representatives are the legislative body and the king. The national assembly, forming the legislative body, is permanent, and consists of one chamber only. It shall be formed by new elections every two years. The legislative body cannot be dissolved by the king. The number of representatives to the legislative body shall be 745, on account of the 83 departments of which the kingdom is composed : and independent of those that may be granted to the colonies. The representatives shall be distributed among the 83 departments of which the kingdom is composed, and independent of those that may be granted to the colonies. The representatives shall be distributed among the 83 departments, according to the three proportions, of land, of population, and the contribution direct. Of the 745 representatives 247 are attached to the land. Of these each department shall nominate three, except the department of Paris, which shall nominate only one. Two hundred and forty-nine representatives are attached to the population. The total mass of the active population of the kingdom is divided into 249 parts, and each department nominates as many of the deputies as it contains parts of the population.

Two hundred and forty-nine representatives are attached to the contribution direct. The sum total of the direct contribution of the kingdom is likewise divided into 249 parts ; and each department nominates as many deputies as pays parts of the contribution. In order to form a legislative national assembly, the active citizens shall convene in primary assemblies, every two years, in the cities and cantons. "The primary assemblies shall meet of full right, on the first Sunday of March, if not convoked sooner by the public officers appointed to do so by the law."

Every active citizen was to be a Frenchman, 25 years of age or upwards, paying a direct contribution to the valour of three days labour, to have resided the legal time in the city of canton in which he votes, to have been one of the national guards, and not to have been a servant. Every hundred active citizens were to nominate one elector, and these electors should meet in each department to choose the representatives. The person of the king was sacred and inviolable; his only title to be king of the French By heading any army against the nation, or leaving the kingdom and not returning when invited by the legislative body, he was to abdicate the royalty. After abdication he was to become a citizen, and might be accused and tried, like them, for acts posterior to his abdication. He possessed the power of nominating ambassadors, and a part of the officers of the army and navy; of declaring war, and of refusing his consent to such acts of legislature as he might disapprove. This refusal was, however, only suspensive, and if the two following legislatures should successively present the same decree, the king was to be deemed to have given his sanction. Offenders were to be accused by a public accuser, nominated by the people, and tried by jury, before judges, chosen by the people and instituted by the king. This constitution was to be revised by the fourth legislature, augmented with the addition of 249 members, and was not to extend to the French colonies and possessions in Asia, Africa, and America.

On the 13th of September the king announced, by a letter to the president of the assembly, his acceptance of the constitution. This event was ordered to be notified to all the foreign courts, and the assembly decreed a general amnesty, with respect to the events of the revolution. On the following day the king repaired in person to the national assembly; and being conducted to a chair of state prepared for him at the side of the president, he signed the constitutional act, and took an oath of fidelity to it. He then withdrew, and was attended back to the Thuilleries by the whole assembly, with the president at their head. On the 30th of September this national assembly, which has since been known by the name of the constitutional assembly, dissolved itself; and gave place to the succeeding legislative national assembly, which had been elected according to the rules prescribed by the new constitution.

The hostile appearances still continuing on the frontiers, war was declared, on the 20th of April, 1792, against Francis, the young king of Hungary, afterwards emperor; and the French made an unsuccessful attack on the Austrian Netherlands. In July it was announced by the king that the king of Prussia was marching with 52,000 men to co-operate against France. On the 25th of the same month the duke of Brunswick issued his sanguinary and imprudent manifesto, in which he threatened, with the punishment of treason, all that should oppose the allied powers, and all the horrors of military execution were denounced against the city of Paris. This manifesto was the warrant for the destruction of Louis. At midnight, between the 9th and 10th of August, the great bell of Paris sounded an alarm, and the drums beat to arms throughout the city. A new common council was instantly chosen by the leaders of the republican party, who cited before them M. Maudat, the commander of the national guard, who was accused of a plot to massacre the people. He was immediately ordered to prison, but shot with

a pistol as he descended the stairs. The palace was now attacked by an armed multitude, the king fled for protection to the hall of the national assembly, the defenders of the palace were most of them cut in pieces, and every individual found in it was massacred.

Mean while the duke of Brunswick continued to advance at the head of 90,000 men, and speedily became possessor of Longwy and Verdun. The news of this second capture and of the approach of the Prussians spread an instant alarm through Paris. It was proposed to raise a volunteer army, which should set out immediately to meet the enemy. The common council, which was now led by Robespierre, Danton, Marat, and others of the most sanguinary character, ordered the alarm guns to be fired, and the populace to be summoned to meet in the Champ de Mars, to enrol themselves to march against the enemy. The people assembled, and either in consequence of a premeditated plan, or, which is not very probable, of an instantaneous movement, a number of voices exclaimed that "The domestic foes of the nation ought to be destroyed before its foreign enemies were attacked."

Parties of armed men proceeded, without delay, to the prisons where the non-juring clergy, the Swiss officers, and those confined since the 10th of August, on account of practices against the state, were detained in custody. They took out the prisoners one by one, gave them a kind of mock trial before a jury of themselves, acquitted some few, and murdered the rest. Among these last was the princess de Lamballe. She was taken from her bed before this bloody tribunal and massacred; her head was carried by the populace to the temple, to be seen by the queen, whose friend she was. These massacres lasted for two days, and upwards of 1000 persons were put to death. There is scarce any thing in history that can be represented as parallel to them; they were committed, it is said, by less than 300 men, in the midst of an immense city, which heard of them with horror, and in the vicinity of the national assembly, which, by going in a body, could have put an end to them; but such was the confusion and dismay of these two disgraceful days, that no man dared to stir from his own house; and every one believed that the whole city, excepting his own street, was engaged in massacre and blood-shed. The national guards were already at their respective posts, but no man directed them to act: and there is too much reason to suspect that Santerre and the chiefs of the commune connived at least at the transaction.

The successes of the duke of Brunswick were very short lived, he was soon obliged, by those diseases which the feeding on improper provision had introduced among his army, to abandon the French territories; and the republicans had the satisfaction, before the close of the year, to find themselves possessed of Worms, Spires, and Mentz, as well as the duchy of Savoy. Dumourier was equally successful in the Austrian Netherlands, all of which he reduced, except only the city of Luxemburg.

In the mean time the republicans were divided into two parties, the Girondists, to whom belonged Condoret and Brissot; and the party of the mountain, at the head of whom were Danton, Robespierre, and Marat. Both these parties were united in their detestation of royalty, but the former of them wished to bring to justice the authors of

the massacre; and the latter were determined on the destruction of the king. Louis was brought to his trial on the 11th of December, condemned to death on the 16th of January, 1793, and executed on Monday, the 21st. He ascended with a firm air and step. Raising his voice, he said, "Frenchmen I die innocent; I pardon all my enemies; and may France---" at this instant the inhuman Santerre ordered the drums to beat, and the executioners to perform their office. When they offered to bind his hands he started back, as if about to resist; but recollected himself in a moment and submitted. When the instrument of death descended, the priest exclaimed, "Son of St. Louis ascend to heaven." The bleeding head was held up, and a few of the populace shouted Vive la Republique. His body was interred in a grave, that was filled up with quick-lime, and a guard placed around till it should be consumed.

The greater part of the charges brought against him were trifling. Those which seem to be of importance relate to conduct authorised by the constitution under which he acted, and that constitution declared his person inviolable. The severest punishment which he could incur by law was not death but deposition; and there is no doubt that in putting him to death, the French nation broke the social compact which their representatives made with him.

The events of the year 1793 were uncommonly various and important. On the 1st of February war was declared against England and Holland, about a fortnight after against Spain, and in the course of the summer France was engaged in hostilities against all Europe, excepting only Switzerland, Sweden, Denmark, and Turkey. In the mean time general Dumourier made an attack upon Holland, reduced Breda, Klundert, and Gertruydenberg, but besieged Williamstadt and Bergen-op-zoom without success. He was soon after defeated in two general engagements, the first at Neerwinden, and the second near Louvain. He then, through the medium of colonel Mack, came to an agreement with the Imperialists, that his retreat should not be seriously interrupted. It was now fully agreed between him and the Imperialists, that while the latter took possession of Condé and Valenciennes, he should march to Paris, dissolve the convention, and place the son of the late king upon the throne.

The troops of Dumourier refused, however to turn their arms against their country, and he was obliged in consequence, to seek refuge among the allies. On the 8th of April a congress of the combined powers assembled at Antwerp, and adopted the resolution to commence active operations against France. By the defection of Dumourier the whole army of the north was dissolved, and, in part, disbanded, in the presence of a numerous, well-disciplined, and victorious enemy. Dampierre, who was appointed his successor, made every effort in his power to maintain his ground, but was, on the 8th of May, killed by a cannon-ball. His camp was taken on the 23rd, and the allies immediately commenced the siege of Valenciennes. Condé surrendered to the allies on the 10th of July, and Valenciennes on the 27th.

At the termination of the siege of Valenciennes it is said that the allied powers were at a loss how to proceed next. The Austrian commanders are said to have presented two plans: The first was to penetrate to Paris, by the assistance of the rivers which fall

into the Seine; the other was to take advantage of the consternation occasioned by the surrender of Valenciennes, and with 50,000 light troops to penetrate suddenly to Paris, while a debarkation should be made on the coast of Brittany to assist the royalists. The proposal of the British ministry was, however, adopted; which was to divide the grand army, and to attack West Flanders, beginning with the siege of Dunkirk. This determination proved ruinous to the allies. The French found means to vanquish in detail that army which they could not encounter when united.

The attempt against Dunkirk proved extremely unfortunate; the Austrians were totally defeated, and the British lost their heavy cannon and baggage, with several thousand men. Quesney was, however, taken by general Clairfait, on the 11th of September, and here finally terminated the success of the allies in the Netherlands. Late in the season the French were able to act on the offensive, to take Furnes, and besiege Nieuport.

On the side of the Rhine Mentz surrendered to the Prussians, and they, with their allies, the Austrians, appeared at one time likely to make a deep impression on the territory of France. They were, however, obliged, in December, to retreat across the Rhine, and of all their former conquests nothing remained to them but Mentz. This campaign is described as exceedingly bloody, 70,000 men having fallen in one month. The war with Spain produced nothing of importance. In Italy, Nice and Chamberry were still retained by the French. The Corsican general, Paoli, revolted, and the new republic, assaulted from without by the whole strength of Europe, was undermined by treachery and faction within. Early in June the mountain party in the convention expelled the Girondists by the assistance of an armed force, and thus obtained the undivided command at Paris, and over the greater part of the republic. Lyons, Marseilles, and Toulon revolted, and entered into a confederacy in support of the moderate party. This conduct only served to bring ruin on themselves. Lyons was obliged to surrender on the 8th of October, its public buildings were levelled with the ground, and such of its inhabitants as had been active in its defence were destroyed by grape-shot and the guillotine. Marseilles was obliged to submit; but the leading people of Toulon surrendered that city to lord Hood, on condition that he should preserve it as a deposit for Louis XVII. and assist in restoring the constitution of 1789. Toulon was retaken by the French on the 19th of December; many of its inhabitants escaped on board the fleet, and many others were sacrificed to the fury of their countrymen. In La-Vendee a bloody war was excited, and persisted in by the royalists. They used to go on peaceably in their occupations, till, at concerted periods, they suddenly assembled in immense bands. As neither party gave quarter, this revolt was attended with a prodigious waste of life. In Paris at the same time much blood was shed by the guillotine; the queen of France, the duke of Orleans, Brissot, with many leaders of the moderate party, and a vast number of persons of all ranks, particularly priests and nobles, were publicly executed. In this year of horrors the new system of measures, weights, and coinage, and the republican calendar were established. Gobet, bishop of Paris, with a great multitude of other ecclesiastics, resigned their function and renounced the Christian religion. Liberty,

equality, nature, and reason were declared the objects of French worship; but the populace could not yet be brought to forsake their churches and attend at the temples of reason.

At the commencement of the following year, the ruling party, having no competitors for power, and being possessed of immense riches by the plunder of the churches and the confiscation of the property of royalists, emigrants, and persons condemned by the the revolutionary tribunal, were enabled to carry the most extensive plans into effect with surprising rapidity.

Thirty committees of the convention managed the whole business of the state without sharing much of the direct executive-government, which rested in the committee of public safety. Highways were constructed, and canals planned and cut throughout the country. Immense manufactories of arms were every where established. At Paris alone 1100 muskets were daily fabricated, and 100 pieces of cannon cast every month. Public schools were assiduously instituted, and the French language taught in its purity from the Pyrenees to the Rhine. The French convention possessed immense resources, and they did not hesitate to lavish them upon their schemes. Every science and every art was called upon for aid, and the most accomplished men in every profession were employed in giving splendor to their country. The chemists, in particular, gave essential aid by the facility with which they supplied the materials for the manufacture of gun-powder; and in return for their services Lavoisier, the greatest of them, suffered death by a most iniquitous sentence. Not fewer than 200 new dramatic performances were produced in less than two years; the object of which was to attach the people to the present order of things. The vigour with which the committees of subsistence exerted themselves is to be remarked. As all Europe was at war with France, and as England, Holland, and Spain, the three maritime powers, were engaged in the contest, it had been thought not impossible to reduce France to great distress by famine, especially as it was imagined that the country had not resources to supply its immense population. But the present leaders of that country acted with the policy of a besieged garrison. They siezed upon the whole provisions in the country, and carried them to public granaries. They registered the cattle, and made their owners responsible for them. They provided the armies abundantly, and as the people were accurately numbered, they dealt out in every district, on stated occasions, what was absolutely necessary for subsistence and no more. To all this the people submitted; and indeed through the whole of the mixed scenes of this revolution the calm judgment of the historian is not a little perplexed. We cannot avoid admiring the patience with which the people at large endured every hardship that was represented as necessary to the common cause, and the enthusiastic energy with which they lavished their blood in defence of the independence of their country. At the same time we must regard with indignation and disgust the worthless intrigues, by means of which the sanguinary factions in the convention and the capital alternately massacred each other.

The Jacobines who had hitherto remained united, now divided into two clubs, and persecuted each other with the most cruel hatred. Many of the former acquaintance of

Robespierre were brought to the block, and he seemed to have attained the unlimited power of a dictator, when, on the 27th of July, he found himself opposed and outlawed by a party of the convention, arrested on the 28th, and, in the course of the same day was led to execution. After the fall of Robespierre the convention appeared to have lost much of its vigour, but manifested a degree of lenity which tended greatly to conciliate the affection of the people. During the whole of this year the French were on the continent signally victorious; they over-ran the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, reduced several of the strongest fortresses belonging to the Dutch, over-ran all the country on the left side of the Rhine, totally routed the Spaniards, and became masters of great part of the provinces of Navarre and Catalonia. The English were, however, successful at sea, where lord Howe defeated the French charnel fleet, on the 1st of June; the island of Corsica revolted, and the French lost great part of their West India possessions.

The year 1795 commenced with a winter unusually severe, which froze up the largest rivers in the Netherlands, and enabled the French to atchieve the conquest of Holland. The greater part of the Dutch, who disliked the government of the stadtholder, received the invaders as the deliverers of their country, but events have since proved that their expectations were dreadfully disappointed. The other advantages obtained by the French arms were the reduction of Luxemburg and Manheim. The security of the republic was, however, increased by treaties of peace with Prussia and Spain. The former of these powers consented to give up to France whatever territory had been conquered on the left of the Rhine, till a general peace; on condition that the Prussian dominions to the right of that river should be immediately evacuated. Spain surrendered to France the Spanish part of the island of St. Domingo, while the French relinquished all the conquests made in Spain, and restored the former frontier. The republic was also acknowledged by Sweden and Switzerland. The royalists in La Vendee, though assisted by a descent of the English, were defeated with great slaughter, and reduced to submission. During this year Paris was convulsed with the most dreadful commotions, in which large bodies of military force defended and opposed the convention. A new constitution was published on the 23rd of August, according to which, on the 27th October, the convention terminated its sittings, and was succeeded by the new legislature. This was composed of two councils, denominated the council of 500 and the council of antients. The former of these possessed the power of proposing laws, and the latter of approving or rejecting them. By these two councils were chosen the executive directory, which consisted of the five following persons, Carnot, Barras, Rewbell, La Reveillere Lapaux, and Letourneur de la Manche.

The year 1796 was chiefly memorable for the invasion of Germany by Jourdan and Moreau, and that of Italy by Buonaparte. The latter general, who has since arisen to such a wonderful pitch of greatness, compelled the king of Sardinia to submit to a most humiliating treaty, by which he permitted the French to retain possession of Savoy and Nice, gave them his most valuable fortresses during the war, and gave them leave to pass through his dominions whenever they might think proper. Parma purchased an

armistice by the contribution of 2,000,000 of French money, 10,000 quintals of wheat, 5000 quintals of oats, 2000 oxen, and 20 of the paintings to be chosen by the French. Similar stipulations with the last mentioned were made in their other treaties with Italian states, by which means the most valuable curiosities of Italy were gradually transferred to the French capital. Armistices of a similar nature were made with Modena and the pope, so that it might be said with but little exaggeration, that all Italy, except the city of Mantua, was obliged to submit to the Gallic republic.

The successes of Buonaparte, in the year 1797, procured peace with the pope and with the emperor of Germany. In addition to the payments stipulated in the late armistice, the pope promised to pay 15,000,000 of livres, and to deliver 800 cavalry horses with as many draught horses and oxen. He also engaged to pay 300,000 livres to the family of the French envoy, Basseville, who had been murdered at Rome, and to apologize, by his minister at Paris, for that event. By the treaty of Campo Formio the emperor gave up the Netherlands to France, the Milanese to the Cisalpine republic, and his territories in the Brisgaw to the duke of Modena, as an indemnification for the loss of his duchy in Italy. The emperor also consented that the French should possess the Venetian islands, in the Levant, of Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, Santa Maura, Cerigo, and others. On the other hand the French republic consented that the emperor should possess in full sovereignty, the city of Venice, and its whole other territory, from the extremity of Dalmatia, round the Adriatic, as far as the Adige and the lake Garda. The Cisalpine republic was to possess the remaining territory of Venice in this quarter, along with the city and duchy of Mantua, and the ecclesiastical states of Ferrara and Bologna. A congress, it was agreed, should meet at Rastadt, to settle the limits of the German empire, and the indemnification to be granted to such princes as should be deprived of their former territories.

In 1798 the French obtained the conquest of Rome, Switzerland, Malta, Egypt, Naples, and Piedmont.

The next year, however, they experienced some reverses of fortune; the congress at Rastadt was broken off, and the Austrians, supported by the Russians, under marshal Suwarrow, obtained several very important victories. When, however, the French were nearly driven out of Italy, and it seemed very possible to have penetrated France itself, a misunderstanding ensued among the allies, and Suwarrow, having informed the emperor of Russia of the treatment he had received, retired to Augsburg to wait for further orders. The invasion of Holland, by the English and Russians, proved unsuccessful. Buonaparte was compelled, by the Turkish army and the English forces under Sir Sidney Smith, to raise the siege of Acre and return to Egypt. In October he left that country and suddenly landed in France, where he was received with distinction, though every one was ignorant of the motives on which he acted. They were not, however, kept long in suspense; for, on the 10th of November, taking advantage of the dissensions which prevailed between the two councils, he procured the abolition of the government, and got himself with Sieyes and Roger Ducos declared consuls, with a power to revise the constitution. This was produced in December, and appeared evidently calculated

though it still preserved the name of liberty, to collect the supreme power of the state in the hands of the chief consul Buonaparte.

During 1800, hostilities continued between the Austrians and French, but ultimately to the advantage of the latter. Suwarrow returned to Russia, and Buonaparte obtained the victory of Marengo.

The year 1801 was chiefly marked by events of a pacific nature, which restored, for a short interval, the tranquillity of Europe. On the 9th of February a treaty of peace between France and the German empire was concluded at Luneville. Beside confirming, in many instances, the treaty of Campa Formio, it was agreed that the grand duke of Tuscany should resign his dominions to the duke of Parma, and that France should possess all the country on the left of the Rhine. In the succeeding month a peace was concluded with the king of the two Sicilies; by which the latter consented to shut his ports against the English and Turks, to pay 500,000 franks to such of the French citizens as had suffered during the late disorders in the south of Italy, and to pardon all such of his subjects as had been prosecuted for their political principles or conduct. By a treaty with the Ottoman Porte, France agreed to the evacuation of Egypt, and Turkey guaranteed the republic of the seven islands. The treaty with Portugal and that with Russia contained few other stipulations than the restoration of amity and commercial intercourse. Lastly, the treaty between France and England, which suspended the long and bloody contest, which had desolated so great a part of Europe, and affected, though less deeply, the other quarters of the globe, permitted the English to remain in possession of Trinidad and Ceylon, declared the Cape of Good Hope a free port, and confirmed the stipulations which had been made in the preceding treaties.

VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK V.

The Russian Empire.

CHAPTER I.

The Description of Poland----------*Together with its history, till the partition in* 1773.

POLAND, in the more extensive acceptation of the name, comprehends the duchy of Courland, Samogitia, the grand duchy of Lithuania, Wolynia, Kiovia, Podolia, Red Russia, Polesia, Polachia, Warsovia, Great Poland, Little Poland, Prussia Royal, and Ducal Prussia. Its principal cities are Warsaw, Cracow, Wilna, Koningsburg, Dantzic and Thorn.

Warsaw is built partly in a plain, and partly on a gentle ascent, rising from the banks of the Vistula, which is about as broad as the Thames at Westminster, but very shallow in summer. This city and its suburbs occupy a vast extent of ground, and are supposed to contain 70,000 inhabitants, among whom are a great number of foreigners. The whole has a melancholy appearance, exhibiting the strong contrast of wealth and poverty, luxury and distress, which pervades the greatest part of this unhappy country. The streets are spacious, but ill-paved; the churches and public buildings are large and manificent; the palaces of the nobility are numerous and splendid; but the greatest part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean and ill-constructed wooden hovels.

Cracow stands in an extensive plain, watered by the Vistula, which is broad but shallow; the city and its suburbs occupy a vast tract of ground, but are so badly peopled that they scarcely contain 16,000 inhabitants. The great square in the middle of the town is very spacious, and has several well-built houses, once richly furnished and well inhabited, but most of them now either untenanted, or in a state of melancholy decay. Many of the streets are broad and handsome, but almost every building bears the most striking marks of ruined grandeur; the churches alone seem to have preserved their original splendor.

Its university was formerly called the mother of Polish learning, but has of late years greatly declined.

Wilna is the capital of Lithuania.

Konigsberg, the capital of Regal Prussia, is about five miles in circumference, and contains about 60,000 inhabitants, including a garrison of 700 men. The palace, town-house, exchange, and cathedral are all very fine structures. Its trade is very considerable.

Dantzic, the capital of Polish Prussia, is famous in history on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse towns. It is large, beautiful, populous, and rich; its houses generally are five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chesnut-trees. One of the suburbs is called Scotland: and the Scots have great privileges in consequence of their gallant defence of the town, under one of the family of Douglas, when it was besieged by the Poles. It is said there are are upwards of 30,000 pedlars of that nation in Poland who travel on foot, and some with three, four, or five horses. In the time of king Charles II. they were about 53,000: in that reign sir John Denham and Mr. Killigrew were sent to them to tax them by the poll, with the king of Poland's licence; which having obtained, they brought 10,000*l.* sterling, besides their charges in the journey. Dantzic has a fine harbour, and is still a most eminent commercial city, although it seems to be somewhat past its meridian glory.

Thorn was formerly a Hanseatic town, and still enjoys great privileges; it is large and well fortified, but part of the fortifications and a great number of houses were ruined by the Swedes in 1703. It is seated on the Vistula, and contains 10,000 inhabitants.

The air of this kingdom is cold in the north, but temperate in the other parts, both in summer and winter, and the weather in both is more settled than in many other countries. The face of the country is, for the most part, level, and the hills are but few. The Crapack or Carpathian mountains separate it from Hungary on the south. This soil is very fruitful both in corn and pasturage, hemp and flax. Such is the luxuriance of the pastures in Podolia that it is said one can hardly see the cattle that are grazing in the meadows. Vast quantities of corn are yearly sent down the Vistula to Dantzic from all parts of Poland, and bought up chiefly by the Dutch. The eastern part of the country is full of woods, forests, lakes, marshes, and rivers; of the last of which the most considerable in Poland are the Vistula, Nieper, Niester, Duna, Bog, Warta, and Memel. The metals found in this country are iron and lead, with some tin, gold, and silver; but there are no mines of the two last wrought at present. The other products of Poland are most sorts of precious stones, ochre of all kinds, fine rock crystal, Muscovy glass, talc, alum, saltpetre, amber, pitcoal, quicksilver, spar, sal-gem, lapis caliminaris, and vitriol. In Lesser Poland are salt mines, which are the chief riches of the country, and bring most money into the exchequer. In the woods, which consist mostly of oak, beech, pine, and fir trees, besides the more common wild beasts, are elks, wild asses, wild oxen, or uri, lynxes, wild horses, wild sheep with one horn, bisons, hyenas, wild goats, and buffaloes. In the meadows and fenny ground is gathered a kind of manna; and the kermes-berries produced in this country are used both in dying and medicine.

The inhabitants consist of nobles, citizens, and peasants. The first possess great

privileges, which they enjoy, partly by the indulgence of their kings, and partly, of any custom and prescription.

There are two archbishops in the kingdom, viz. those of Gnesna and Laopol, and about a dozen bishops. The archbishop of Gnesna is always a cardinal and primate of the kingdom. The prevailing religion is popery, but there are great numbers of Lutherans, Calvinists, and Greeks, who are called Dissidents, and, by the laws of the kingdom, were entitled to toleration; but were much oppressed till very lately. The Jews are indulged with great privileges, and are very numerous in Poland; and in Lithuania it is said there are a multitude of Mahometan Tartars. We may judge of the number of Jews in this country by the produce of their annual poll-tax, which amounts to near 57,000 rix-dollars.

There are few or no manufactures in the kingdom, if we except some linen and woollen cloths and hardwares; and the whole trade is confined to the city of Dantzic and other towns on the Vistula or Baltic.

Before the present troubles the king's revenue was all clear to himself; for he paid no troops, not even his own guards; but all the forces, as well as the officers of state, were paid by the public.

The Poles are personable men, and have good complexions. They are esteemed a brave, honest people, without dissimulation, and exceedingly hospitable. They clothe themselves in furs in winter, and over all they throw a short cloak. No people keep grander equipages than the gentry. They look upon themselves as so many sovereign princes: and have their guards, bands of music, and keep open houses; but the lower sort of people are poor abject wretches, in the lowest state of slavery. The exercises of the gentry are hunting, riding, dancing, vaulting, &c. They reside most upon their estates in the country; and maintain themselves and families by agriculture, breeding of bees, and grazing.

The antient history of Poland was written principally by foreigners, and is, like that of most other countries, fabulous and unsatisfactory. By some they are supposed to have descended from the antient Sclavi, and by others from the Lazi, a people who lived near the Black sea. They were at first governed by dukes, of whom Lechus, a wise and moderate prince, is said to have been contemporary with Charlemagne, and to have fallen in battle with that monarch. In the reign of Meiczslaus I. the Christian religion was introduced into Poland. The most probable account of this important event is that Meiczslaus having, by ambassadors, made his addresses to Deboroka, daughter to the duke of Bohemia, the lady rejected his offer, unless he would suffer himself to be baptized. To this the duke consented, and was baptized, after having been instructed in the principles of Christianity. He founded the archbishoprics of Gnesna and Cracow; and appointed St. Adalbert, sent by the pontiff to propagate Christianity in Poland, primate of the whole kingdom. On the birth of his son Boleslaus he redoubled his zeal; founding several bishoprics and monasteries; ordering likewise that when any part of the gospel was read the hearers should half draw their swords, in testimony of their

readiness to defend the faith. He was, however, too superstitious to attend to the duties of a sovereign; and suffered his dominions to be ravaged by his barbarous neighbour, the duke of Russia. Yet, with all his devotion, he could not obtain the title of king from the pope, though he had warmly solicited it; but it was afterwards conferred on his son, who succeeded to all his dominions.

This prince, whose name was Boleslaus, succeeded to the sovereignty in the year 999, and was a great warrior. He is said to have subdued Bohemia, Moravia, Prussia, Pomerania, and Russia. The greater part of these conquests were, however, lost during the civil wars and other troubles, which soon after followed. Boleslaus having fallen under the displeasure of the pope, the kingdom was put under an interdict, and its rulers were obliged to relinquish the regal dignity, and content themselves with the title of duke. Boleslaus III. who succeeded to the government in 1103, was an able and active prince. He resisted, with great valour, the invasion of Henry IV. but made an unsuccessful attempt against Russia; and, by dividing his dominions among his sons, brought the most grievous calamities upon his country after his decease. In the 13th century Poland suffered the most dreadful calamities from the repeated invasions of the Tartars, assisted, as they frequently were, by the Lithuanians and the Russians. Whole provinces are said to have been desolated, and all their inhabitants massacred. The nobility were obliged to fly into Hungary, the peasants sought refuge in the forests; and Cracow as well as many other cities were taken, pillaged, and burnt. Premislaus, who was duke in the year 1296, resumed the title of king, and was succeeded, in 1300, by Uladislaus Locticus. The first transaction of his reign was a war with the Teutonic knights, who had usurped the greater part of Pomerania during the late disturbances. They had been settled in the territory of Culm, by Conrade, duke of Mazovia; but soon extended their dominion over the neighbouring provinces, and had even got possession of the city of Dantzic, where they massacred a number of Pomeranian gentlemen in cold blood; which so much terrified the neighbouring towns that they submitted without a stroke. The knights were commanded by the pope himself to renounce their conquests; but they set at nought all his thunders, and even suffered themselves to be excommunicated rather than part with them.

As soon as this happened, the king ravaged Brandenburg and Culm, and being opposed by the joint forces of the marquis of Brandenburg, the knights, and the duke of Mazovia, he obtained a complete victory, which was followed up by others of equal importance. Though he had it in his power to destroy the whole Teutonic order, he satisfied himself with obtaining the territories which had occasioned the war, and spent the remainder of his days in tranquillity.

Uladislaus was succeeded by his son Casimir III. surnamed the Great. He subdued the province called Russia Nigra in a single campaign. Next he turned his arms against Mazovia; and, with the utmost rapidity, over-ran the duchy, and annexed it as a province to the crown; after which he applied himself to domestic affairs, and was the first who introduced a written code of laws into Poland. He was, perhaps, the most impar-

tial judge, the most rigid observer of justice, and the most submissive to the laws, of any potentate mentioned in the history of Europe.

The accession of Jagellon, duke of Lithuania, to the crown of Poland was productive of some important advantages, as it annexed to that kingdom the duchy of Lithuania, Samogitia, and Black Russia, and hereby enabled the Poles the better to resist the encroachments of the Teutonic order. In the reign of his successor, Uladislaus VI. we find the nation, for the first time, involved in a war with the Turks. He was defeated and killed by that enemy at the battle of Varna. His successor, Cassimir IV. obliged the Teutonic knights to relinquish Pomerania with several other of their conquests, and united the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary to Poland. During the succeeding reigns of John, Albert, and Alexander, the Polish affairs fell into a decline; the kingdom being harrassed by continual wars with the Turks and Tartars. However they were retrieved by Sigismund I. who ascended the throne in 1507. This monarch, having reformed some internal abuses, next set about rendering the kingdom as formidable as it had formerly been. He first quelled a rebellion which broke out in Lithuania: after which he drove the Walachians and Moldavians out of Russia Nigra, and defeated the Russians in a pitched battle with the loss of 30,000 men. After this complete victory he turned his arms against the Teutonic knights, and obliged the marquis of Brandenburg to renounce his connection with them, on which consideration he permitted him to possess half the province of Prussia, as a secular duke, dependant on the Polish crown. During his reign Poland appears to have been at its greatest pitch of prosperity. Sigismund possessed in his own person the republic of Poland, the great duchies of Lithuania, Smolensko, and Saveria, besides vast territories lying beyond the Euxine and Baltic; while his nephew Louis possessed the kingdoms of Bohemia, Hungary, and Silesia. But this glory received a sudden check, in 1548, by the defeat and death of Louis, who perished in a battle fought with Solyman the Great, emperor of the Turks. The daughter of this prince married Ferdinand of Austria; whereby the dominions of Hungary, Bohemia, and Silesia became inseparably connected with the hereditary dominions of the Austrian family. This misfortune is thought to have hastened the death of Sigismund; though being then in his 84th year, he could not have lived long by the ordinary course of nature. He did not, however, survive the news many months, but died of a lingering disorder, leaving behind him the character of the completest general, the ablest politician, the best prince, and the strongest man in the north.

His son and successor, Sigismund I. was a very great and happy prince. He applied himself diligently to the reforming abuses, enforcing the laws, promoting industry, enriching the treasury, and preserving a respectable character in peace and war. At his death the house of Jagellon was extinguished, which had governed Poland for near 200 years.

On the death of Sigismund, Poland became a prey to intestine divisions; and a vast number of intrigues were set on foot at the courts of Vienna, France, Saxony, Sweden, and Bradenburg; each endeavouring to establish a prince of their own nation on the

throne of Poland. The consequence of all this was that the kingdom became one universal scene of corruption, faction, and confusion; the members of the diet consulted only their own interest, and were ready, on every occasion, to sell themselves to the best bidder. The protestants had by this time got a considerable footing in the kingdom; and thus religious disputes were intermingled with political ones One good effect, however, flowed from this confusion; for a law was passed, by which it was enacted that no difference in religious opinions should make any contention among the subjects of the kingdom; and that all the Poles, without discrimination, should be capable of holding public offices and trusts under the government; and it was also resolved that the future kings should swear expressly to cultivate the internal tranquillity of the realm, and cherish, without distinction, their subjects of all persuasions.

The state of Poland remained the same till the accession of the late king, unless that the catholics had gradually invaded the freedom of the dissidents. Stanislaus Augustus, a Polish nobleman, whose family name was Poniatowski, was proclaimed king of Poland, September 7th, 1764, and was crowned on the 25th of November, through the interest of Russia and Prussia. Yet these powers, in conjunction with Austria, taking advantage of the dissensions which prevailed in that unhappy country, took possession of such parts of it as lay most contiguous to their own dominions. A diet being demanded by the partitioning powers, in order to ratify the cession of the provinces, it met on the 19th of April, 1773; and such was the spirit of the members, that, notwithstanding the deplorable situation of their country, the threats and bribes of the three powers, the partition treaty was not carried through without much difficulty. For some time the majority of the nuncios appeared determined to oppose the dismemberment, and the king firmly persisted in the same resolution. The ambassadors of the three courts enforced their requisitions by the most alarming menaces, and threatened the king with deposition and imprisonment. They also gave out by their emissaries, that in case the diet continued refractory, Warsaw should be pillaged. This report was industriously circulated, and made a sensible impression upon the inhabitants. By menaces of this sort, by corrupting the marshal of the diet, who was accompanied with a Russian guard; in a word, by bribes, promises, and threats, the members of the diet were at length prevailed to ratify the dismemberment.

Of the dismembered countries, the Russian province is the largest, the Austrian the most populous, and the Prussian the most commercial. The population of the whole amounts to near 5,000,000 souls; the first containing 1,500,000; the second 2,500,000; and the third 860,000. Western Prussia was the greatest loss to Poland, as, by the dismemberment of that province, the navigation of the Vistula entirely depends upon the king of Prussia: by the loss, consequently, of this district, a fatal blow was given to the trade of Poland; for his Prussian majesty has laid such heavy duties upon the merchandize passing to Dantzic, as greatly to diminish the commerce of that town, and to transfer a considerable proportion of it to Mensel and Koningsburg.

The partitioning powers, however, did less injury to the republic by dismembering its fairest provinces, than by perpetuating the principles of anarchy and confusion, and establishing, on a permanent footing, that exorbitant liberty, which is the parent of faction, and has proved the decline of the republic. Under pretence of amending the constitution they have confirmed all its defects, and have taken effectual precautions to render this unhappy country incapable of emerging from its present deplorable state; as has been lately seen in the failure of the most patriotic attempt, that was, perhaps, ever made by a king to reform the constitution of his kingdom.

CHAPTER II

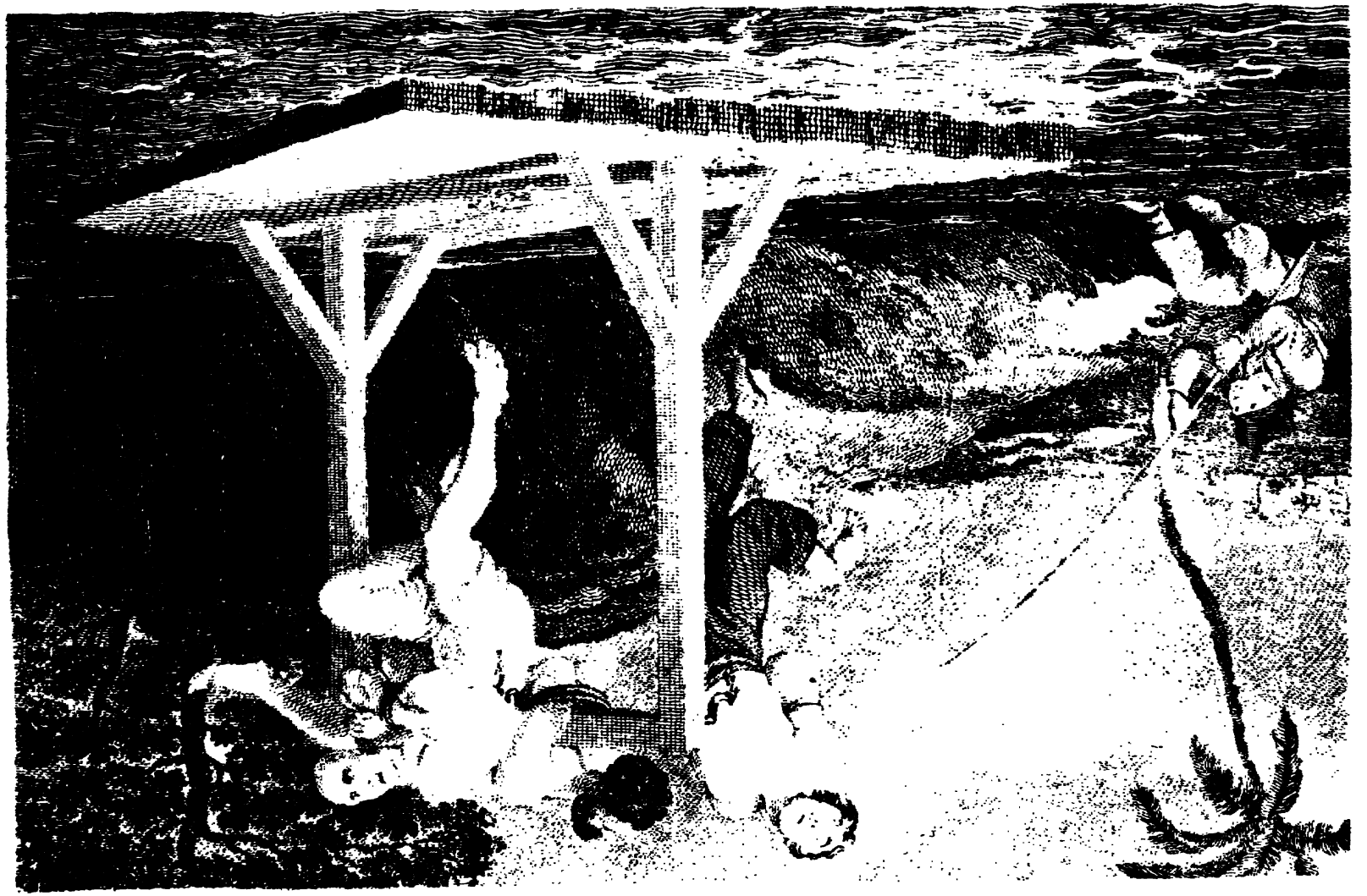
GENERAL VIEW OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.—[illegible] *description of its principal cities and most remarkable provinces.*

RUSSIA is divided into two great parts by [illegible] called Oural or the Belt, which, through [illegible] continual uninterrupted barrier, dividing Siberia [illegible]

That part of Russia [illegible] mountains presents a very extensive plain, [illegible] extent of this plain has a [illegible] The northern part of it is very wo[illegible] sensible declivity towards the White and the [illegible] includes the whole extent along the river [illegible] Caspian and the Azov seas, and [illegible] very rich and fruitful, having [illegible] deserts.

The part lying [illegible] name of Siberia, is a flat tract [illegible] ly towards the Glacial sea, and [illegible] south, where at last it forms a great range of mountains, constituting [illegible] Russia on the side of [illegible] is a very extensive [illegible] of Baraba, the northern [illegible] t, on the contrary, is a desert [illegible] tion. Between the rivers [illegible] and the other side [illegible] Enisse[illegible] lake Baical is [illegible] wards the east, the [illegible] summer grows [illegible]

[illegible] earth, Russia [illegible] rthern, middle, [illegible] for the better [illegible] nds to the end of [illegible] St. Petersburg, R[illegible] Yaroslavl, K[illegible] from the 57th to the [illegible] and includes the governments of Moscow, Smolenski, Polotsk, [illegible] Novogorod-Sieverskoy, Kharkov, Voronetz, Koursk,



Orel, Kalouga, Toola, Riazane, Vladimir, Niznei-Novogorod, Tambov, Saratoo, Penza, Sinbirsk, Kazane, Oufa, Kolhivave, and Irkoutsk. The southern division begins at the 50th degree of latitude, and extends to the end of Russia on the south, including the governments of Kiev, Ekatherinoslav, Caucasus, and the province of Taurida. To this may be added the habitations of the Cossacks of the Don.

The northern division, though deficient in grain, fruit, and garden vegetables, has the preference before the other two in the abundance of animals, rare and valuable for their skins; in fishes of particular sorts, very useful for different purposes of life; in cattle, and metals of inferior kinds, &c. The middle division of Russia abounds in different kinds of grain, hemp, flax, cattle, fish, bees, timber proper for every use, different kinds of wild beasts, metals both of superior as well as of inferior kind, different precious stones, &c. This division is likewise most convenient for the habitation of mankind, on account of the temperature and pleasantness of the air. The southern division has not that abundance of grain, but has the preferment in different delicate kinds of fruit, quantity of fish, cattle, and wild animals, among which there are several species different from those which are found in the middle division. It exceeds greatly both the other divisions in plants and roots, fit for dying and for medical purposes, as well as for the table; neither is it deprived of precious stones, as well as different metals.

The products of these three divisions constitute the permanent and inexhaustible riches of Russia; for besides what is necessary for home consumption, there is a great quantity of those products exported yearly into foreign countries, to the amount of several millions of rubles. These products are brought from different places to fairs established in different parts of Russia, where the merchants buy them up, and forward them to the different ports and other trading towns for exportation into foreign kingdoms. These fairs are likewise the places where a considerable quantity of goods, imported from foreign kingdoms, is disposed of. The principal yarmankas, that is fairs, are the yarmanka Makarievskaya, Korennaya, and Irbitskaya.

The external commerce of Russia may be divided into two different branches; first, The commerce with the European nations, which is carried on by buying and selling goods, either for ready money or upon credit. Second, The commerce with the Asiatic nations, which is conducted by barter or exchange of goods.

The principal ports belonging to the first part of Russia are, on the Baltic Sea, St. Petersburg, Riga, Vyborg, Revel, Narva, Fredericksham, and the Baltic Port; Archangel on the White sea; and Kola on the Northern ocean; Tagaurog on the sea of Azov; Kherson, Sevastople, Balaklava, Soudak, Theodosia, Kerche, and Phanagoria on the Black sea; besides others of smaller note. In these ports commerce is carried on, as well as in several trading towns situated on the frontiers of Poland, Sweden, and Turkey.

The products of Russia exported into the different European kingdoms consist chiefly in hemp, flax, different kinds of grain, tallow, hides, sail-cloth, iron, timber, [illegible], butter, hemp-oil, train-oil, wax, potashes, tar, tobacco, bristles, linens, [illegible], and other goods, the greatest part of which is exported chiefly by way of St. [illegible]burg

Riga, and Archangel; and in return, from the European kingdoms, they receive woollen cloths, different kinds of goods made of worsted, silk, cotton, and thread; wines and beer, white and moist sugars, silks, cotton unwrought, and yarn; French brandy, liquors, arrack, shrub, different iron tools, and toys; gold and silver in bars, in foreign money, and in other things; brilliants, pearls, galanterie goods, coffee, colours; peltry, viz. beaver and other skins; herrings, stock-fish, salt, tobacco, different trees, oil, horses, china, earthenware, &c. The greatest part of these goods is imported through the ports of St. Petersburgh and Riga; but a considerable quantity is likewise admitted by land through different frontier custom-houses.

The principal goods exported into Asia are partly the products of Russia and partly imported from other European kingdoms, and consist of peltry and hides. The other goods are woollen cloths, bays, borax, bottles, printed linens, iron, and different kinds of iron ware, calimancoes, kerseys, glue, isinglass, cochineal, indigo, laura, tinsel, gold and silver lace, soap; all kinds of arms, as pistols, guns, sabres; different kinds of linens, printed and glazed, striped linen, ticking, &c. From the Asiatic kingdoms they import different silk goods, raw silk, cotton, silk-wove stuffs, gold and silver in bars and in coin, cattle, horses, &c.

The mountains within Russia, as well as thoses on its frontiers, abound with minerals of various kinds. Gold, silver, quicksilver, copper, lead, iron-ore, very powerful loadstones, mountain crystal, amethyst, topazes, of different sorts, agates, cornelian, beral, chalcedony, onyx, porphary, antimony, pyrites, aquamyrines, chrysolites, ophites, and lapis lazuli are found in them, besides marble, granite, trappe, maria or Muscovy glass of remarkable size and clearness, basaltes, coal, &c.; and in every part of Siberia, but particularly in the plains of it, are found bones of animals uncommonly large, mammoth's teeth, and other fossils.

In the Russian empire are many lakes of very large extent. First, the Ladoga, antiently called Nevo, is the largest lake in Europe, extending in length 175, and in breadth 105 versts; or it is 116 English miles long and near 70 broad. It lies between the governments of St. Petersburg, Olonetz and Výboug; and communicates with the Baltic sea by the river Neva, with the Onega lake by the river Svir, and with the Ilmen lake by the river Volkov. Several considerable rivers fall into it, as the Pasha, Sias, Oyat, and others. The Ladoga canal is made near this lake. Second, the Onega lake is situated in the goverment of Olonetz. It is above 200 versts long, and the greatest width of it does not exceed 80 versts. Third, the Tchude lake or Peipus, lies between the governments of St. Petersburg, Pscov, Revel, and Riga. It is near 80 versts long and 60 broad. It joins to the lake of Pscov by a large neck of water. The length of this lake is 50, and the width about 40 versts. The river Vlikaya flows into it. The river Narova comes out of the lake Peipus, which, by the river Embakha, communicates with the lake Wirtz-Erve, and from this latter flows the river Fellin, and runs into the Bay of Riga. Fourth, the Ilmen lake, antiently called Moisk, lies in the government of Novogorod. Its length is 40 and width 30 versts. The rivers Lovate, Shelone, and others fall into it: and only one river, Volkov, runs out of it, by which it is joined by

the Lodoga lake. Fifth, the Biclo-Ozere, that is the White Lake, lies in the government of Novogorod. It extends 50 versts in length, and about 30 in width. There are many small rivers which run into it; but only one river, Sheksna, comes out of it, and falls into the river Volga. Sixth, the Altin or Altay lake, otherwise called the Teletsk lake, is situated in the government of Kolhivane. It extends in length 196, and in width about 84 versts. The river Biga comes out of it, which, being joined to the rivir Katonya, constitutes the river Oby. Seventh, the Baical lake, otherwise called the Baical sea, and the Holy sea, lies in the government of Irkoutsk. Its extent in length is 600, and in width from 30 to 50 versts, and in the widest places, as far as 70 versts. Eighth, the Techani lake, lies in the deserts of Baraba, between the rivers Oby and Irtish. It joins with a great many smaller lakes, occupies a vast tract of land, and abounds very much in fish. Ninth, between the gulph of Finland and the White sea there are several lakes, which extend from 50 to 70 versts in length; and besides these there are many other salt lakes in different parts of Russia, such as the Ozero, that is the lake Eltonskoye, Bogdo, Inderskoye, Ebele, Koriakovskoye, Yamishevskoye, Borovze, and others; and the salt which is got from them serves for the use of the greatest part of the empire. To these may be added the Caspian, which, though called a sea, is more properly a lake, as it has no communication with the ocean, either visible or subterraneous.

Russia boasts likewise of a considerable number of large and famous rivers. The Dvina or Dwina, the Neva, the Dniepei or Nieper, the Don, the Volga, the Irtis, the Onega, the Oby, the Lena, and many other rivers are worthy of notice.

In such a vast extent of country, stretching from the temperate so far into the frigid zone, the climate must vary considerably in different places. In the southern parts of the Russian empire the longest day does not exceed $15\frac{1}{2}$ hours; whereas, in the most northern the sun in summer is seen two months above the horizon. The country in general, though lying under different climates, is excessively cold in the winter. Towards the north the country is covered near three quarters of the year with snow and ice; and by the severity of the cold many unfortunate persons are maimed or perish. This sort of weather commonly sets in about the latter end of August, and continues till the month of May; in which interval the rivers are frozen to the depth of four or five feet. Water thrown up in the air will fall down in icicles; birds are frozen in their flight, and travellers in their sledges. In some provinces the heats of summer are as scorching as the winter colds are rigorous.

The soil of Muscovy varies still more than the climate, according to the influence of the sun and situation of the country. In the warmer provinces the process of vegetation is so rapid that corn is commonly reaped in two months after it begins to appear above the surface of the ground. Hence the great variety of mushrooms produced spontaneously in Russia; which may be considered as a comfortable relief to the poor, while they appeared as delicacies at the tables of the rich. Above 1000 waggon-loads of them used to be sold annually at Moscow. Perhaps it is on account of scarcity of provisions that such a number of fasts are instituted in the Muscovite religion.

Besides the productions already mentioned as peculiar to each of the three great natural divisions of the empire, Muscovy yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, pasture for cattle, wax, and honey. Among other vegetables, we find in Russia a particular kind of rice, called psyntha; plenty of excellent melons, and, in the neighbourhood of Astracan, the famous zoophoton or animal plant, which the Muscovites call bonnaret or lambkin, from its resemblance to a lamb.

Agriculture in general is but little understood, and less prosecuted, in this country. The most considerable articles in the economy of a Russian farm are wax and honey; by which the peasant is often enriched. He cuts down a great number of trees in the forest, and hewing the trunks into a number of parts, bores each of these, and stops up the hollow at both ends, leaving only a little hole for the admittance of the bees; thus the honey is secured from all the attemps of the bear, who is extremely fond of it, and tries many different experiments for making himself master of the luscious treasure. Of this honey the Russians make a great quantity of strong metheglin for their ordinary drink. They likewise extract from rye a spirit, which they prefer to brandy.

The wild beasts in the northern parts of Russia are rein-deer, bears, foxes, ermines, martens, sables, hares, and squirrels. In the most southern parts the Muscovites breed black cattle, small but hardy horses, sheep, goats, and camels. The breed of cattle and horses has been enlarged, by the care and under the protection of Peter and succeeding sovereigns. The whole empire abounds with wild-fowl and game of all sorts, and a variety of birds of prey; besides the different kinds of poultry, which are raised in this as well as in other countries. The external parts and provinces of Muscovy are well supplied with sea-fish from the Northern Ocean, the Baltic or Gulf of Finland, the White sea, the Black sea, and the Caspian; but the whole empire is plentifully provided with fresh-water fish from the numerous lakes and rivers, yielding immense quantities of salmon, trout, pike, sturgeon, and belluga; the last being a large fish, of whose roe the best caviare is made. Innumerable insects, like those of Lapland, are hatched by the summer's heat in the sand, morasses, and forests, with which this empire abounds; and are so troublesome as to render great part of the country altogether uninhabitable.

The Russian empire is inhabited by no less than 16 different nations, of which our limits will hardly permit us to give the names. The first are the Sclavoniac nations, comprehending the Russians, who are the predominant inhabitants of the whole empire, and the Poles, who, besides occupying the countries lately wrested from the republic, live in the government of Polatsk and Moghilev, as well as in the district of Selenghiusk, and along the river Irtish. Second, The Germanic nations, comprehend the Germans, properly so called, who inhabit Esthonia and Livonia; the Swedes, inhabiting the Russian Finland, as well as some of the islands on the Baltic; the Danes, who inhabit the islands of the Baltic, the Worms, and the Gross or Great Roge. Third, The Lettonian or Livonian nations, under which are classed the original or real Lettonians or Letishi, inhabiting Livonia; and the Lithuanians who live in the governments of Polotsk and Moghilev. Fourth, The Finnis or Tchudi nations, who inhabit the governments of Viberg and St. Petersburg, with many other districts of the empire, being branched out

into no fewer than 12 different tribes. Fifth, The Tartarian nations, who are all either Mahometans or idolaters. The Mahometan Tartars, commonly called by the Russians, Tartare, dwell in Kazane and the places adjacent: at Kesimov, at Ouse, in the government of Parma, at Tomsk and its neighbourhood; and are, in general, a sober, industrious, cleanly, and generous people. The other Tartars inhabit different parts of Siberia, and are intermixed with still different races, called after the towns, rivers, and other places, to which their habitations are nearest. They are idolaters, and governed by shamens. Besides these, there are in the Russian dominions, the Nagay Tartars; the Crim Tartars, inhabiting the Crimea, who, together with the land belonging to them, came under the subjection of Russia, in 1733; the Mescheraki; the Bashkirs; the Kirghistzi or Kirghis-kaisaks; the Yakonti; and the White Calmuks. Sixth, The Caucasian nations, which are six in number, and are each subdivided into many different tribes, of which it is probable few of our readers have ever heard the names, except of the Circassians, who live in different settlements bordering on the river Kabane. Seventh, The Samoyeds or Samoeds, comprehending the Ostiacks. These inhabit the most northern parts of Russia, along the coast of the Icy Sea. Eighth, the Mungalian nations, comprehending the original Mungals, who are chiefly dispersed in the deserts of Gobey; the Bonrati, who live on the banks of the Baikal and other places in the government of Irkoutsk; and the Kalmucks, consisting of four different tribes. All these hordes speak the Mungalian language, observe the religion of Lama; and the Kalmucks live in large tents. Ninth, The Tongoosi, a very populous tribe, dispersed from the river Enissey as far as the sea of Okhotsk, and from the Penjinskaya Gooba to the Chinese frontier. They are all idolaters, and live by hunting and fishing. Tenth, The Kamtchadels. Eleventh, The Koriaki. Twelfth, The Couriltzi. Of these three nations we shall give some account in the latter part of this chapter. Thirteenth, The Aleonti, who dwell in the islands between Siberia and America, and very much resemble the Esquimaux and the inhabitants of Greenland. They live in large huts, and seem to be idolaters. Fourteenth, the Arnitzi, a very numerous people, scattered in the government of Kolhivane. Fifteenth, The Yukaghiri, who are dispersed on the wastes on the coasts of the Glacial Sea, about the rivers Yana, Kolhima, and Lena, and as far as the source of the Anadir. Sixteenth, The Tchouktchi, who occupy the north-eastern part of Siberia, between the rivers Kolhima and Anadir. Besides these 16 different nations there are scattered through the Russian empire vast numbers of Buckharian Tartars, Persians, Georgians, Indians, Greeks, Servians, Albanians, Bulgarians, Moldavians, Valekians, Armenians, and Jews.

The empire of Russia is so widely extended, that, notwithstanding the number of nations which it comprehends, it must be considered as by no means populous. At the last revision it was found to contain 26,000,000; but it is to be observed, that the nobility, clergy, land as well as sea forces, different officers, servants belonging to the court, persons employed under in civil and other offices; the students of different universities, academies, seminaries, and other schools; hospitals of different denominations; likewise all the irregular troops, the roving hordes of different tribes, foreigners, and

colonists, or settlers of different nations are not included in the above-mentioned number: but with the addition of all these, the population of Russia of both sexes may be supposed to come near to 28,000,000.

To such a vast variety of people, nations, and languages, it is needless to observe that no general character can, with truth, be applied. The native Russians are stigmatized by their neighbours as ignorant and brutal, totally resigned to sloth, and addicted to drunkenness, even to the most beastly excess; nay, they are accused of being arbitrary, perfidious, inhuman, and destitute of every social virtue. There is not a phraze in their language analagous to ours, "the manners or the sentiments of a gentleman;" nor does a gentleman with them express any thing moral. Indeed they have no such distinction. Cunning is professed and gloried in by all; and the nobleman whom you detect telling a lie is vexed but not in the least ashamed. In the whole reglement of the marine by Peter the Great, there is not one word addressed to the honour or even to the probity of his officers. Hopes of reward, and the constant fear of detection and punishment are the only motives touched on. In every ship of war and in every regiment there is a fiscal or authorized spy, a man of respectable rank, whose letters must not be opened, but at the risk of the great Knout; and he is required, by express statute, to give monthly reports of the behaviour of the officers and the privates.

Such regulations we cannot think well adapted to improve the morals of the people; yet we believe they have been improved by the care, assiduity, and example of some of their late sovereigns. Certain it is the vice of drunkenness was so universally prevalent among them, that Peter I. was obliged to restrain it by very severe edicts; which, however, have not produced much effect. They numbered in the city of Moscow no fewer than 4000 brandy-shops, in which the inhabitants used to sot away their time in drinking strong liquors and smoaking tobacco. This last practice became so dangerous among persons in the most beastly intoxication, that a very severe law was found necessary to prevent the pernicious consequences, otherwise the whole city might have been consumed by conflagrations. The nobility heretofore were very powerful, each commanding a great number of vassals, whom they ruled with the most despotic and barbarous authority: but their possessions have been gradually circumscribed, and their power transferred, in a great measure, to the czar, on whom they are now wholly dependent. At present there is no degree of the nobility but that of the boyars: these are admitted to the council, and from among them the waivodes, governors, and other great officers are nominated: and their ranks, with respect to each other, are regulated by the importance of their respective offices.

Alexis, who introduced this order of precedency, abhorred the personal abasement of the inferior classes to their superiors, which he would not accept of when exhibited to himself; and it may appear surprising that Peter, who despised mere ceremonials, should have encouraged every extravagance of this kind. In a few years of his reign the beautiful simplicity of designation and address, which his father had encouraged, was forgotten, and the cumbersome and almost ineffable titles, which disgrace the little courts of Germany, were crouded into the language of Russia. He enjoined the lowest order of

gentlemen to be addressed by the phrase, Your respectable birth; the next rank by Your high good birth; the third Your Excellence; the fourth Your High Excellence; then came Your Brilliancy, and High Brilliancy. Highness and Majesty were reserved for the great duke and the czar.

These titles and modes of address were orderered with all the regularity of the manual exercise; and the man who should omit any of them, when speaking to his superior, might be lawfully beaten by the offended boyar. Before this period it was polite and courtly to speak to every man, even the heir apparent, by adding his father's name to his own; and to the great duke, Paul Petrovitz was perfectly respectful; or a single word signifying dear father, when he was not named. Though pompous titles were unknown among them before the era of Peter, the subordination of ranks was more complete than in any other European nation; but with this simplicity, peculiar to them and the Poles, that they had but three ranks, the sovereign, the noblesse or gentry, and the serfs. It was not till very lately that the mercantile rank formed any distinction; and that distinction is no more than the freedom of the person, and not being, in some instances, obliged to pay the poll tax, which was formerly a transferable commodity, belonging to the boyar. Notwithstanding this simplicity, which puts all gentlemen on a level, the subscription of a person holding an inferior office was not servant but slave; and the legal word for a petition in form was tchelobitii, which signifies a beating with the forehead; i. e. striking the ground with the forehead; which was actually done. The father of Alexis abolished this practice; but at this day, when a Russian petitions you, he touches his forehead with his finger; and if he be very earnest, he then puts his finger to the ground.

The Russian nobles formerly wore long beards, and long robes, with strait sleeves dangling down to their ancles; their collars and shirts were generally wrought with silk of different colours; in lieu of hats they covered their heads with fur caps; and instead of shoes wore red or yellow leather buskins. The dress of the women nearly resembled that of the other sex; with this difference, that their garments were more loose, their caps fantastical, and their shift sleeves three or four ells in length, gathered up in folds from the shoulder to the forearm. By this time, however, the French fashions prevail among the better sort throughout all Muscovy.

The common people are generally tall, healthy, and robust; patient of cold and hunger, inured to hardships, and remarkable for bearing the most sudden transition from the extremes of hot or cold weather. Nothing is more customary than to see a Russian, who is overheated and sweating at every pore, strip himself naked and plunge into a river: nay, when their pores are all opened in the hot bath, to which they have daily recourse, they either practise this immersion or subject themselves to a discharge of some pailfuls of cold water. This is the custom of both men and women, who enter the baths promiscuously, and appear naked to each other without scruple or hesitation.

A Russian will subsist for many days upon a little oatmeal and water, and even raw roots: an onion is a regale; but the food they generally use in their journies is a kind

of rye-bread, cut into small square pieces, and dried again in the oven: these, when they are hungry, they soak in water, and eat as a very comfortable repast. Both sexes are remarkably healthy and robust, and accustom themselves to sleep every day after dinner.

The education of the czarovitz or prince royal is intrusted to the care of a few persons, by whom he is strictly kept from the eyes of the vulgar, until he hath attained the 15th year of his age: then he is publicly exposed in the market-place, that the people, by viewing him attentively, may remember his person, in order to ascertain his identity; for they have more than once been deceived by impostors.

In Russia the authority of parents over their children is almost as great as it was among the antient Romans, and is often exercised with equal severity. Should a father, in punishing his son for a fault, be the immediate cause of his death, he could not be called to account for his conduct; he would have done nothing but what the law authorized him to do. Nor does this legal tyranny cease with the minority of children; it continues while they remain in their father's families, and is often exerted in the most indecent manner. It is not uncommon, even in St. Petersburg, to see a lady of the highest rank, and in all the pomp and pride of youthful beauty, standing in the court-yard, with her back bare, exposed to the whip of her father's servants. And so little disgrace is attached to this punishment, that the same lady will sit down at table with her father and his guests, immediately after she has suffered her flogging, provided its severity has not confined her to bed.

The Muscovites are fond of the bagpipe, and have a kind of violin, with a large belly like that of a lute; but their music is very barbarous and defective. Nevertheless there are public schools, in which the children are regularly taught to sing. The very beggars ask alms in a whining cadence and ridiculous sort of recitative. A Russian ambassador at the Hague, having been regaled with the best concert of vocal and instrumental music that could be procured, was asked how he liked the entertainment; he replied, "Perfectly well: the beggars in my country sing just in the same manner." The warlike music of the Russians consists in kettle-drums and trumpets; they likewise use hunting horns, but they are not at all expert in the performance. It has been said the Russians think it beneath them to dance, and that they call in their Polish or Tartarian slaves to divert them with this exercise in their hours of dissipation. Such may have been the case formerly, or may be so now in the distant and most barbarous provinces of the empire, but at St. Petersburg dancing is at present much relished, and a minuet is no where so gracefully performed in Europe as by the fashionable people in that metropolis.

The Russian language is a dialect of the Sclavonian, and the purest, perhaps, that is now any where to be found; but they have nothing antient written in it except a translation of St. Chrysostom's offices for Easter, which are at this day good Russian, and intelligible to every hoor, though certainly not less than 800 years old. Science has made but a very small progress among them, and the reputation of the imperial academy at St. Petersburg has been hitherto supported chiefly by the exertions of foreigners. For

antiquarian research they have as little relish as for scientific investigation. Every thing to please must be new; and the only elucidations which we have of their antiquities are the performances of Germans and other foreigners, such as professors Bayer, Muller, and Gmelin.

The Russians were converted to the Christian religion towards the latter end of the tenth century, as has been already related. Since that period they have confessed the articles of the Greek church, mingled with certain superstitious ceremonies of their own. They do not believe in the pope's infallibility or supremacy, or even hold communion with the see of Rome; they use auricular confession, communicate in both kinds, adopt the Athanasian creed, and adhere to the established liturgy of St. Basil. They worship the Virgin Mary and other saints; and pay their adorations to crosses and relics. They observe four great fasts in the year, during which they neither taste fish, flesh, nor any animal production; they will not drink after a man who has eaten flesh, nor use a knife that has cut meat in less than 24 hours after it has been used; nor will they, even though their health is at stake, touch any thing in which hartshorn or any animal substance has been infused. While this kind of Lent continues, they subsist upon cabbage, cucumbers, and rye-bread; drinking nothing stronger than a sort of small beer, called quassi. They likewise fast every Wednesday and Friday. Their common penance is to abstain from every species of food and drink, but bread, salt, cucumbers, and water. They are ordered to bend their bodies, and continue in that painful posture, and, between times, to strike their head against an image.

The Muscovites at all times reject, as impure, horse-flesh, elk, veal, hare, rabbit, asse's milk, mare's milk, and Venice treacle, because the flesh of vipers is an ingredient; also every thing that contains even the smallest quantity of musk, civet, and castor; yet they have no aversion to swine's flesh; on the contrary the country produces excellent bacon. They celebrate 15 grand festivals in the year. On Palm-Sunday there is a magnificent procession, at which the czar assists in person and on foot. He is dressed in cloth of gold; his train is borne up by the prime of the nobility, and he is attended by his whole court. He is immediately preceded by the officers of his household, one of whom carries his handkerchief on his arm, lying upon another of the richest embroidery. He halts at a sort of platform of free-stone; where, turning to the east, and bending his body almost double, he pronounces a short prayer: then he proceeds to the church of Jerusalem, where he renews his devotion. This exercise being performed, he returns to his palace, the bridle of the patriarch's horse resting upon his arm. The horse's head, being covered with white linen, is held by some nobleman, while the patriarch, sitting sidewise, and holding a cross in his hand, distributes benedictions as he moves along: on his head he wears a cap edged with ermine, adorned with loops and buttons of gold and precious stones; before him are displayed banners of consecrated stuff in a variety of colours. Above 500 priests walk in the procession: those who are near the patriarch bearing pictures of the Virgin Mary, richly ornamented with gold, jewels, and pearls, together with crosses, relics, and religious books, including a copy of the gospels, which they reckon to be of inestimable value. In the midst of his proces-

sion is borne a triumphal arch; and on the top an apple-tree covered with fruit, which several little boys, inclosed in the machine, endeavour to gather. The lawyers and laity carry branches of willow; the guards and the spectators prostrate themselves on the ground, while the procession halts; and after the ceremony the patriarch presents a purse of 100 rubles to the czar, who, perhaps, invites him to dine at his table. During the season of Easter the whole empire is filled with mirth and rejoicing: which, however, never fails to degenerate into heat and debauchery; even the ladies may indulge themselves in strong liquors to intoxication without scandal. When a lady sends to inquire concerning the health of her guests, whom she entertained over-night, the usual reply is, "I thank your mistress for her good cheer: by my troth I was so merry that I don't remember how I got home."

During these carnivals, a great number of people, in reeling home drunk, fall down and perish among the snow. It is even dangerous to relieve a person thus overtaken; for, should he die, the person who endeavoured to assist him is called before the judge, and generally pays dear for his charity.

The Muscovite priests use exorcisms at the administration of baptism. They plunge the child three times over head and ears in the water, and give it the sacrament of the Lord's Supper in one species until it hath attained the age of seven; after which the child is indulged with it in both kinds. They likewise administer the sacrament to dying persons, together with the extreme unction; and if this be neglected the body is denied Christian burial. Soon as the person expires the body is deposited in a coffin, with a luncheon of bread, a pair of shoes, some few pieces of money, and a certificate signed by the parish-priest, and directed to St. Nicholas, who is one of their great patrons. They likewise hold St. Andrew in great veneration, and ridiculously pretend they were converted by him to Christianity. But next to St. Nicholas they adore St. Anthony of Padua, who is supposed to have sailed upon a mill-stone through the Mediterranean and Atlantic, and over the lakes of Lodoga and Onega as far as Novogorod. Every house is furnished with an image of St. Nicholas, carved in the most rude and fantastic manner; and when it becomes old and worm-eaten, the owner either throws it into the river with a few pieces of coin, saying "Adieu brother;" or returns it to the maker, who accommodates him with a new image for a proper consideration. The good women are very careful in adorning their private St. Nicholases with rich clothes and jewels; but on any emergency these are resumed, and the saint left as naked as he came from the hand of the carpenter.

There are monasteries in Russia; but neither the monks nor the nuns are subject to severe restrictions.

Heretofore liberty of conscience was denied, and every convicted heretic was committed to the flames; but since the reign of Peter all religions and sects are tolerated throughout the empire. Roman Catholics, Lutherans, Calvinists, Armenians, Jews, and Mahometans enjoy the free exercise of their respective forms of worship; though it was not without great difficulty, and by dint of extraordinary solicitation from different powers, that the Romish religion was allowed. Peter, knowing the dangerous tenets of

a religion that might set the spiritual power of the pope at variance with the temporal power of the emperor, and being well acquainted with the meddling genius of its professors, held out for some time against the intercession of Germany, France, and Poland; and though he at length yielded to their joint interposition, he would by no means suffer any Jesuit to enter his dominions.

The government of Russia is mere despotism. The whole empire is ruled by the arbitrary will and pleasure of the sovereign, who is stiled the czar or tzar; a title which is perhaps a corruption of Cæsar. Heretofore he was stiled grand duke of Muscovy: but since the reign of Peter he is dignified with the appellation of emperor of Russia; and the present sovereign is stiled emperor of all the Russias. The emperor is absolute lord, not only of all the estates of the empire, but also of the lives of his subjects: the greatest noblemen call themselves his slaves, and execute his commands with the most implicit obedience. The common people revere him as something supernatural: they never mention his name or any thing immediately belonging to him without marks of the most profound respect and awful veneration. A man asking a carpenter at work upon one of the czar's warehouses, what the place was intended for; answered, "None but God and the czar knows."

All the peasants in the empire are considered as immediate slaves, belonging to the czar, to the boyars, or to the monasteries. The value of estates is computed not by the extent or quality of the land, but from the number of those peasants, who may be sold, alienated, or given away at the pleasure of their masters. The number of these husbandmen, whether living in villages or in the open country, being known, the czar, by requiring a certain proportion of each lord or proprietor, can raise 500,000 men in less than 40 days.

The administration is managed by a grand council, called dumnoy boyareau, or council of the boyars, who are the grandees of the empire, and act as privy counsellors. To this are subservient six inferior chambers and courts of judicature; provided each with a president. The first regulates every thing relating to ambassadors and foreign negociations: the second takes cognizance of military affairs; the third manages the public revenues of the empire; the business of the fourth is to encourage, protect, and improve trade and commerce. The two last hear and determine all causes, whether civil or criminal.

Peter divided the empire into the eight governments of Moscow, Archangel, Asoph, Casan, Astracan, Chioff, and the Ukraine, Siberia, Livonia, comprehending Ingria, Plescow, and Novogorod, Smolensko, and Veronitz. The governors or waivodes were vested with power to dispose of all employments, civil and military, and receive the revenues. They were directed to defray all expences in their respective governments, and send a certain yearly sum to the great treasury. In a word, they enjoyed absolute power in every thing but what related to the regular troops, which, though quartered in their jurisdiction, were neither paid nor directed by them, but received their orders immediately from the czar or his generals.

In 1775 the late empress made a complete new modelling of the internal goverment,

in a form of great simplicity and uniformity. By that reglement she divided the whole empire into 43 governments, as we have already mentioned, placing over each, or, where they are of less extent, over two contiguous governments, a governor-general, with very considerable powers. She sub-divided each government into provinces and districts; and, for the better administration of justice, erected in them various courts of law, civil, criminal, and commercial, analogous to those which are found in other countries. She established likewise in every government, if not in every province, a tribunal of conscience; and in every district a chamber for the protection of orphans.

This reglement contains other institutions, as well as many directions for the conducting of law-suits in the different courts, and the administration of justice, which do her majesty the highest honour; but the general want of morals, and what we call a sense of honour, in every order of men through this vast empire, must make the wisest regulations of little avail. Russia is, perhaps, the only nation in Europe where the law is not an incorporated profession. There are no seminaries where a practitioner must be educated. Any man who will pay the fees of office may become an attorney; and any man who can find a client may plead at the bar. The judges are not more learned than the pleaders. They are not fitted for their offices by any kind of education; nor are they necessarily chosen from those who have frequented courts and been in the practice of pleading. A general, from a successful or an equivalent campaign, may be instantly set at the head of a court of justice; and, in the absence of the imperial court from St. Petersburg, the commanding officer in that city, whoever it may be, presides ex officio in the high court of justice. The other courts generally change their presidents every year. Many inconveniences must arise from this singular constitution; but fewer perhaps than we are apt to imagine. The appointment to so many interior governments makes the Russian nobility acquainted with the gross of the ordinary business of law-courts; and a statute or imperial edict is law in every case. The great obstacles to the administration of justice are the contrariety of the laws and the venality of the judges. From inferior to superior courts there are two appeals: and in a great proportion of the causes the reversal of the sentence of the inferior court subjects its judges to a heavy fine, unless they can protect an edict in full point, in support of their decision. This indeed they seldom find any difficulty to do; for there is hardly a case so simple but that edicts may be found clear and precise for both parties; and therefore the judges, sensible of their safety, are very seldom incorruptible. To the principle of honour, which often guides the conduct of judges in other nations, they are such absolute strangers, that an officer has been seen sitting in state and distributing justice from a bench, to which he was chained by an iron collar round his neck, for having, the day before, been detected in conniving at smuggling. This man seemed not to be ashamed of his crime, nor did any one avoid his company in the evening.

We have already mentioned the traffic of the Russians with the different nations both of Asia and Europe, and specified iron as one of the articles which they export. We may here add, that in 1792 there were, in the government of Perme alone, which lies in the northern division of the empire, 88 copper and iron works, belonging to the govern-

ment and private persons, and three gold works. The metals extracted in these works are chiefly conveyed to St. Petersburg by water-carriage on the river Ichusovaya, which falls into the Koma. With respect to the revenue of Russia, it continually fluctuates according to the increase of commerce or the pleasure of the czar, who has all the wealth of the empire at his disposal. He monopolizes all the best furs, mines, minerals, and the trade by land to the East Indies; he farms out all the tobacco, wine, brandy, beer, mead, and other liquors; the inns, taverns, public, houses, bath and sweating houses. The customs upon merchandize, the imposts upon corn, and toll exacted from cities, towns, and villages are very considerable. He possesses demesnes to a very great value; inherits the effects of all those who die intestate or under accusation of capital crimes; derives a duty from all law-suits; and, to sum up the whole, can command the fortunes of all his subjects. All these articles produce a large revenue, which was three years ago estimated at upwards of 40,000,000 rubles, or 6,333,333*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling; but then the intrinsic value of money is at least three times greater in Russia than in Britain. The expences in time of peace never exceed 38,000,000 rubles; the remainder is not treasured up, but is employed by her imperial majesty in constructing public edifices, making harbours, canals, roads, and other useful works for the glory of the empire and the benefit of her subjects.

The standing army of Russia is computed at 250,000 men; besides these the Russians can assemble a body of 40,000 irregulars, Calmucks, Cossacks, and other Tartars who live under their dominion. But the numbers may be doubled on any emergency. The czarina has likewise a considerable fleet in the Baltic, and a great number of formidable galleys, frigates, fire ships, and bomb-ketches.

St. Petersburgh a city of the province of Ingria in Russia, and capital of the whole empire, is situated in N. lat. 59°, 26, 23", and E. long. 30°, 25', from the first meridian of Greenwich. It was founded in the year 1703, by Czar Peter the Great, whose ambition it was to have a fleet on the Baltic; for which reason he determined to found a city which might become the centre of trade throughout all his dominions. The spot he pitched upon was a low, fenny, uncultivated island, formed by the branches of the river Neva, before they fall into the gulph of Finland. In the summer this island was covered with mud; and in winter became a frozen pool, rendered almost inaccessible by dreary forests and deep morasses, the haunts of bears, wolves, and other savage animals. Having taken the fort of Nattlebourg, and the towns of Neischanz, in the year 1703, this mighty conqueror assembled in Ingria above 300,000 men, Russians, Tartars, Cossacks, Livonians, and others, even from the most distant parts of the empire, and laid the foundation of the citadel and fortifications, which were finished in four months almost in despite of nature. He was obliged to open ways through forests, drain bogs, raise dykes, and lay causeways, before he could pretend to found the new city. The workmen were ill provided with necessary tools and implements, such as spades, pick-axes, shovels, planks, and wheel-barrows: they were even obliged to fetch the earth from a great distance in the skirts of their garments, or in little bags made of old mats and rags sewed together. They had neither huts nor houses to shelter them from

the severity of the weather: the country which had been desolated by war, could not accommodate such a multitude with provisions; and the supplies by the lake Ladoga were often retarded by contrary winds. In consequence of these hardships above 100,000 men are said to have perished: nevertheless the work proceeded with incredible vigour and expedition; while Peter, for the security of his workmen, formed a great camp in such a manner that his infantry continued in Finland, and his cavalry were quartered in Ingria. Some Swedish cruizers being descried in the neighbourhood, the czar posted a body of troops in the isle of Rutzari, by whom the Swedes were repulsed and the work met with no further interruption. The buildings of the city kept pace with the fortress, which is the centre of the town, surrounded on all sides by the Neva; and in little more than a year above 30,000 houses were erected. At present there may be about double that number in Petersburg, though many of them are paltry and inconsiderable. In order to people this city, Peter invited hither merchants, artificers, mechanics, and seamen from all the different countries of Europe: he demolished the town of Nieuschants, and brought hither not only the materials of the houses, but the inhabitants themselves. A thousand families were drawn from Moscow; he obliged his nobility to quit their palaces and their villas in and about Moscow, and take up their residence at Petersburg, in a much more cold and comfortless climate. Finally, resolving to remove hither the trade of Archangel, he issued an ordinance, importing that all such merchandize as had been conveyed to Archangel, in order to be sold to foreigners, should now be sent to Petersburg, where they should pay no more than the usual duties. These endeavours and regulations have rendered this one of the greatest and most flourishing cities in Europe. The Russian boyars and nobility have built magnificent palaces, and are now reconciled to their situation. At first many houses were built of timber, but these being subject to sudden conflagrations in spite of all the precautions that could be taken, the czar, in the year 1714, issued an order that all new houses should be walled with brick, and covered with tiles. The fort is an irregular hexagon, with opposite bastions. This, together with all the other fortifications, was in the beginning formed of earth only; but in the sequel they were faced with strong walls, and provided with casemates, which are bomb-proof. In the curtain of the fort, on the right hand side, is a dispensary, well supplied with excellent medicines, and enriched with a great number of porcelain vases from China and Japan. From one of the gates of the fort a draw-bridge is thrown over an arm of the river in which the czar's galleys and other small vessels are sheltered in the winter. The most remarkable building within the fort is the cathedral, built by the direction of an Italian architect. Petersburg is partly built on little islands, some of which are connected with draw-bridges, and partly on the continent. In the highest part on the bank of the Neva, the czar fixed his habitation, or ordinary residence, built of free-stone, and situated so as to command a prospect of the greatest part of the city. Here likewise is a royal foundery, together with the superb houses of many noblemen. The marshy ground, on which the city is built, being found extremely slippery, dirty, and incommodious, the czar ordered every inhabitant to pave a certain space before his own door. In the year 1716, Peter

taking a fancy to the island Wafili Osterno, which he had given as a present to prince Menzikoff, resumed the grant, and ordered the city to be extended into this quarter. He even obliged the boyars or nobles to build stone houses on this spot, though they were already in possession of others on the side of Ingria: accordingly this is now the most magnificent part of the city. On the other side of a branch of the Neva stands the czar's country or summer palace, provided with a fine garden and orangery. On the bank of the same river is the slaboda, or suburbs, in which the Germans generally choose their habitations. Petersburg is very much subject to dangerous inundations. In the year 1715 all the bastions and draw-bridges were either overwhelmed or carried away. The breadth, depth, and rapidity of the Neva have rendered it extremely difficult if not impracticable to join the islands and continent by bridges. Besides Peter was averse to this expedient for another reason: resolved to accustom his subjects to navigation, he not only rejected the project of bridges, but also ordered that no boat should pass between the islands and continent except by the help of sails only. In consequence of this strange regulation many lives were lost: but at length he gained his point; and by habituating his sluggish Muscovites to the danger of the sea, in a little time produced a breed of hardy sailors. The adjacent country is so barren, that the town must be supplied with provisions from a great distance; consequently they are extremely dear. Here are woods in plenty, consisting of pine, fir, alder, birch, poplar, and elm; but the oak and the beech are generally brought from Casan. In winter the weather is extremely cold, and hot in the summer. In June the length of the night does not exceed three hours, during which the natives enjoy a continued twilight; but in December the sun is not visible more than three hours above the horizon.

The czar Peter, who was indefatigable in his endeavours to improve and civilize his subjects, neglected nothing which he thought could contribute to these purposes. He condescended even to institute and regulate assemblies at Petersburg; these were opened at five in the afternoon, and the house was shut at ten: between these hours the fashionable people of both sexes met without ceremony, danced, conversed, or played either at cards or at chess, this last being a favourite diversion among the Russians. There was likewise an apartment appointed for drinking brandy and smoaking tobacco. Plays and operas were likewise introduced for the same purposes; but as Peter had little relish and less taste for those entertainments, they were performed in a very awkward manner in his life-time: however, since his death, these performances have been brought to a great degree of art and decorum.

This great northern legislator established, in the neighbourhood of Petersburg, manufactures of linen, paper, salt-petre, sulphur, gunpowder, and bricks, with water-mills for sawing timber. He instituted a marine academy, and obliged every considerable family in Russia to send, at least one son or kinsman, between the age of 10 and 18, to this seminary, where he was instructed in navigation, learned the languages, was taught to perform his exercises, and to live under the severest discipline. To crown his other plans of reformation, he granted letters patent for founding an academy, upon a very liberal endowment; and though he did not live to execute this scheme, his empress, who survived

him, brought it to perfection. It was modelled on the plans of the royal society, in London, and the academy of France. Mr. Bullfinger opened it in the year 1726, with an elegant speech on the design and utility of an academy of sciences; and the professors, who have always distinguished themselves by their merit and erudition, published an annual collection of their transactions; a task the more easy, as they have the benefit of printing presses well managed at Petersburg.

The late empress performed so much for this city, that she may not improperly be called its second foundress. It is nevertheless still an infant place, and, as Mr. Wraxhall observes, "only an immense outline, which will require future empresses, and almost future ages to complete."

"The streets in general," says a late traveller, "are broad and spacious; and three of the principal ones, which meet in a point at the admiralty, and reach to the extremities of the suburbs, are at least two miles in length. Most of them are paved; but a few are still suffered to remain floored with planks. In several parts of the metropolis, particularly in Vassili Ostrof, wooden houses and habitations, scarcely superior to common cottages, are blended with the public buildings; but this motley mixture is far less common than at Moscow, where alone can be formed an idea of an ancient Russian city. The brick houses are ornamented with a white stucco, which has led several travellers to say that they are built with stone; whereas, unless I am greatly mistaken, there are only two stone structures in all Petersburg. The one is a palace, building by the empress, upon the banks of the Neva, called the marble palace; it is of hewn granite, with marble columns and ornaments; the other is the church of St. Isaac, constructed with the same materials, but not yet finished."

"The mansions of the nobility are many of them vast piles of building, but are not in general upon so large and magnificent a scale as several I observed at Moscow: they are furnished with great cost, and in the same elegant style as at Paris and London. They are situated chiefly on the south side of the Neva, either in the admiralty quarter, or in the suburbs of Lavonia and Moscow, which are the finest parts of the city."

"Petersburg, although it is more compact than the other Russian cities, and has the houses in many streets contiguous to each other, yet still bears resemblance to the towns of this country, and is built in a very straggling manner. By an order, lately issued from government, the city has been enclosed within a rampart, the circumference whereof is 21 versts, or 14 English miles."

Moscow may be considered as a town built upon the Asiatic model, but gradually becoming more and more European, and exhibiting in its present state, a motley mixture of Oriental architecture. It is distributed in the following divisions. First, The Kremlin, which stands in the central and the highest part of the city; is of a triangular form, and about two miles in circumference; and is surrounded by high walls of stone and brick, which were constructed in the year 1491, under the reign of Ivan Vassilievich I. It contains the antient palace of the czars, several churches, two convents, the patriarchal palace, the arsenal, now in ruins, and one private house, which belonged to Boris Godunof before he was raised to the throne. Second, Khitaigorod, or the

Chinese town, is enclosed on one side by that wall of the Kremlin which runs from the Moskva to the Neglina; and on the other side by a brick wall of inferior height. It is much larger than the Kremlin, and contains the university, the printing-house, and many other public buildings, and all the tradesmen's shops. The edifices are mostly stuccoed or white-washed, and it has the only street in Moscow in which the houses stand close to one another without any intervals between them. Third, the Bielgorod or White town, which runs quite round the two preceding divisions, is supposed to derive its name from a white wall, with which it was formerly inclosed, and of which some remains are still to be seen. Fourth, Semlainogorod, which environs all the three other quarters, takes its denomination from a circular rampart of earth with which it is encompassed. These two last-mentioned divisions exhibit a grotesque group of churches, convents, palaces, brick and wooden houses, and mean hovels, in no degree superior to peasants' cottages. Fifth, The Sloboda or suburbs form a vast exterior circle, round all the parts already described, and are invested with a low rampart and ditch. These suburbs contain, besides buildings of all kinds and denominations, corn fields, much open pasture, and some small lakes, which give rise to the Neglina. The river Moskva, from which the city takes its name, flows through it in a winding channel; but, excepting in spring, is only navigable for rafts. It receives the Yausa in the Semlainogorod, and the Neglina at the western extremity of the Kremlin; the beds of both these last-mentioned rivulets are in summer little better than dry channels.

The places of divine worship at Moscow are exceedingly numerous: including chapels they amount to above a thousand; there are 484 public churches, of which 199 are of brick, and the others of wood; the former are commonly stuccoed or white-washed, the latter painted of a red colour. The most antient churches of Moscow are generally square buildings, with a cupola and four small domes, some whereof are copper or iron gilt; others of tin, either plain or painted green. These cupolas and domes are for the most part, ornamented with crosses entwined with thin chains or wires. The church of the Holy Trinity, sometimes called the church of Jerusalem, which stands in the Khitaigorod, close to the gate leading into the Kremlin, has a kind of steeple and nine or ten domes; it was built in the reign of Ivan Vassilievitch II. The inside of the churches are mostly composed of three parts: that called by the Greeks pdonaos, by the Russians trapeza, the body, and the sanctuary or shrine. Over the door of each church is the portrait of the saint to whom it was dedicated, to which the common people pay their homage as they pass along, by taking off their hats, crossing themselves, and occasionally touching the ground with their heads. The bells, which form no inconsiderable part of public worship in this country, as the length or shortness of their peals ascertains the greater or less sanctity of the day, are hung in belfrys detached from the church: they do not swing like our bells, but are fixed immoveably to the beams, and are rung by a rope tied to the clapper, and pulled sideways. Some of these bells are of a stupendous size; one in the tower of St. Ivan's church weighs 3551 Russian pounds, or 127,836 English pounds. It has always been esteemed a meritorious act of religion to present a church with bells; and the piety of the donor has been measured by their magnitude,

According to this mode of estimation Boris Godunof, who gave a bell of 288,000 pounds to the cathedral of Moscow, was the most pious sovereign of Russia, until he was surpassed by the empress Anne, at whose expence a bell was cast weighing 432,000 pounds; and which exceeded in bigness every bell in the known world. The height of this enormous bell is 19 feet, its circumference at the bottom 21 yards 11 inches; its greatest thickness 13 inches. The beam to which this machine was fastened being accidently burnt, the bell fell down, and a fragment was broken off towards the bottom, which left an aperture large enough to admit two persons a-breast without stooping.

The palace inhabited by the antient czars, stands at the extremity of the Kremlin. Part of this palace is old, and remains in the same state in which it was built under Ivan Vassilievitch I. The remainder has been successively added, at different intervals, without any plan, and in various styles of architecture, which had produced a motley pile of building, remarkable for nothing but the incongruity of the several structures. The top is thickly set with numerous little gilded spires and globes; and a large portion of the front is decorated with the arms of all the provinces which compose the Russian empire. The apartments are in general exceedingly small, excepting one single room, called the council-chamber, in which the antient czars used to give audience to foreign ambassadors, and which has been repeatedly described by several English travellers who visited Moscow before the imperial residence was transferred to Petersburg. The room is large and vaulted, and has in the centre an enormous pillar of stone, which supports the ceiling. In this palace Peter the Great came into the world, in the year 1672. In that part called the treasury are reposited the crown, jewels, and royal robes used at the coronation of the sovereign, besides several curiosities relative to the history of the country. Of the great number of churches contained in this city two in particular, namely that of St. Michael and that of the assumption of the Virgin Mary, are remarkable; the one for being the place where the sovereigns of Russia were formerly interred, and the other where they are crowned. These edifices, which are situated in the Kremlin, are both in the same style of architecture, and their exterior form, though modelled according to the antient style of the country, is not absolutely elegant. In the cathedral of St. Michael, which contains the tombs of the Russian sovereigns, bodies are not, as with us, deposited in vaults, or beneath the pavement, but are entombed in raised sepulchres, mostly of brick, in the shape of a coffin, and about two feet in height. When Mr. Coxe visited the cathedral, the most antient were covered with palls of red cloth, others of red velvet, and that of Peter II. of gold tissue bordered with silver fringe and ermine. Each tomb has, at its lower extremity, a small silver plate, on which is engraved the name of the deceased sovereign, and the era of his death.

The [illegible] of the assumption of the Virgin Mary, which has long been appropriated to the coronation of the Russian sovereigns, is the most splendid and magnificent in Moscow. [illegible] is, in many parts, covered with plates of solid silver and gold, richly worked [illegible] the centre of the roof hangs an enormous chandelier, of massy silver, weighing [illegible] pounds; it was made in England, and was a present from Morosof, prime minister and favourite of Alexey Michaelovitch. The sacred utensils and

ecclesiastical vestments are extraordinarily rich, but the taste of the workmanship is in general rude, and by no means equal to the materials. Many of the paintings which cover the inside walls are of a colossal size, some two stories in height, and were executed so early as in the latter end of the 15th century. It contains among the rest the head of the virgin, supposed to have been delineated by St Luke, and greatly esteemed in this country for its sanctity and the power of working miracles. Its face is almost black; its head is ornamented with a glory of precious stones, and its hands and body are gilded, which gives it a most grotesque appearance. It is placed in the screen, and enclosed within a large silver covering, which is only taken off on great festivals or for the curiosity of strangers. In this cathedral are deposited the remains of the Russian patriarchs.

The place in the Khitaigorod where the public archives are deposited, is a strong brick building, containing several vaulted apartments with iron doors. These archives, consisting of a numerous collection of state papers, were crowded into boxes, and thrown aside like common lumber, until the present empress ordered them to be revised and arranged. In conformity to this mandate, Mr. Muller disposed them in chronological order, with such perfect regularity, that any single document may be inspected with little trouble. They are enclosed in separate cabinets with glass doors; those relative to Russia are all classed according to the several provinces which they concern, and over each cabinet is inscribed the name of the province to which it is appropriated. In the same manner the manuscripts relative to foreign kingdoms are placed in several divisions, under the respective titles of Poland, Sweden, England, France, Germany, &c.

The university of Moscow, also situated in the Khitaigorod, was founded at the instance of count Shuvalof, by the empress Elizabeth, for 600 students, who are clothed, boarded, and instructed at the expence of the crown. Besides this institution there are two gymnasia, or seminaries, for the education of youth, endowed also by Elizabeth, in which are taught by 23 professors, divinity, classical philosophy, the Greek, Latin, Russian, German, French, Italian, and Tartar languages, history, geography, mathematics, architecture, fortification, artillery, algebra, drawing and painting, music, fencing, dancing, reading, and writing.

Moscow is the centre of the inland commerce of Russia, and particularly connects the trade between Europe and Siberia. The only navigation of this city is formed by the Moskva, which falling into the Occa near Columna, communicates by means of that river with the Volga. But as the Moskva is only navigable in spring upon the melting of the snow, the principal merchandize is conveyed to and from Moscow upon sledges in winter. As to the retail commerce here, the whole of it is carried on in the Kitaigorod; where, according to a custom common in Russia, as well as in most kingdoms of the east, all the shops are collected together in one spot. The place is like a kind of fair, consisting of many rows of low brick buildings, the interval between them resembling alleys. These shops or booths, occupy a considerable space, but do not, as with us, make part of their houses inhabited by the tradesmen, but are quite detached from

their dwellings, which, for the most part, are at some distance in another quarter of the town. The tradesman comes to his shop in the morning, remains there all the day, and returns home to his family in the afternoon. Every trade has its separate department; and they who sell the same goods have booths adjoining to each other. Furs and skins form the most considerable article of commerce in Moscow; and the shops which vend these commodities occupy several streets.

Among the curiosities of Moscow, the market for the sale of houses is not the least remarkable. It is held in a large open space in one of the suburbs, and exhibits a great variety of ready-made houses, strewed upon the ground. The purchaser who wants a dwelling, repairs to this spot, mentions the number of rooms he requires, examines the different timbers, which are regularly numbered, and bargains for that which suits him. The house is sometimes paid for on the spot, and taken away by the purchaser; or sometimes the vender contracts to transport and erect it upon the place where it is designed to stand. It may appear incredible to assert that a dwelling may be thus bought, removed, raised, and inhabited within the space of a week; but we shall conceive it practicable by considering these ready-made houses are in general merely collections of trunks of trees, tenanted and mortised at each extremity into one another, so that nothing more is required than the labour of transporting and adjusting them. But this summary mode of building is not always peculiar to the meaner hovels; as wooden structures of very large dimensions and handsome appearance, are occasionally formed in Russia, with an expedition almost inconceivable to the inhabitants of other countries. A remarkable instance of this dispatch was displayed the last time the empress came to Moscow. Her majesty proposed to reside in the mansion of prince Galitzin, which is esteemed the completest edifice in the city; but as it was not sufficiently spacious for her reception, a temporary addition of wood, larger than the original house, and containing a magnificent suite of apartments, was begun and finished within the space of six weeks. This meteor-like fabric was so handsome and commodious, that the materials which were taken down, at her majesty's departure, were to be re-constructed as a kind of imperial villa, upon an eminence near the city. Mr. Coxe mentions an admirable police in this city for preventing riots, or for stopping the concourse of people in case of fires, which are very frequent, and violent in those parts where the houses are mostly of wood, and the streets are laid with timber. At the entrance of each street there is a chevaux de frize gate, one end whereof turns upon a pivot, and the other rolls upon a wheel; near it is a centry box, in which a man is occasionally stationed. In times of riot or fire, the sentinel shuts the gate, and all passage is immediately stopped.

Among the public institutions of Moscow, the most remarkable is the foundling hospital, endowed in 1764, by the late empress, and supported by voluntary contributions and legacies and other charitable gifts. In order to encourage donations, her majesty grants to all benefactors some valuable privileges, and a certain degree of rank in proportion to the extent of their liberality. Among the principal contributors must be mentioned a private merchant, named Demidof, a person of great wealth, who has expended in favour of this charity 100,000*l*. The hospital, which is situated in a very airy part of

the town, upon a gentle ascent near the river Moskva, is an immense pile of building, of a quadrangular shape, part of which was only finished when Mr. Coxe (whose account we are transcribing) was at Moscow. It contained at that time 2000 foundlings; and when the whole is completed will receive 8000. The children are brought to the porter's lodge, and admitted without any recommendation. The rooms are lofty and large; the dormitories, which are separate from the work-rooms, are very airy, and the beds are not crowded: each foundling, even each infant, has a separate bed; the bedsteads are of iron; the sheets are changed every week, and the linen three times a-week. Through the whole rooms the greatest neatness prevails; even the nurseries being uncommonly clean, and without any unwholesome smells. No cradles are allowed, and rocking is particularly forbidden. The infants are not swaddled, according to the custom of the country, but loosely dressed. The foundlings are divided into separate classes, according to their respective ages. The children remain two years in the nursery, when they are admitted into the lowest class; the boys and girls continue together until they are seven years of age, at which time they are separated. They all learn to read, write, and cast accounts. The boys are taught to knit; they occasionally card hemp, flax, and wool, and work in different manufactures. The girls learn to knit, net, and all kinds of needle-work; they spin and weave lace, they are employed in cookery, baking, and house-work of all sorts. At the age of 14 the foundlings enter into the first class, when they have the liberty of choosing any particular branch of trade; and for this purpose there are different species of manufactures established in the hospital, of which the principal are embroidery, silk stockings, ribbands, lace gloves, buttons, and cabinet-work. A seperate room is appropriated to each trade. Some boys and girls are instructed in the French and German languages, and a few boys in the Latin tongue; others learn music, drawing, and dancing. About the age of 20 the foundlings receive a sum of money and several other advantages, which enable them to follow their trade in any part of the empire; a very considerable privilege in Russia, where the peasants are slaves, and cannot leave their village without the permission of their master. The girls and boys eat separately. The dining rooms, which are upon the ground floor, are large and vaulted, and distinct from their work-rooms. The first class sits at table; the rest stand; the little children are attended by servants; but those of the first or second class alternately wait upon each other. Their victuals is of the most wholesome and nourishing kinds. Each foundling has a napkin, pewter plate, a knife and fork, and spoon: the napkin and table cloth are clean three times a-week. They rise at six, dine at eleven, and sup at six. The little children have bread at seven and four. When they are not employed in the necessary occupations, the utmost freedom is allowed, and they are encouraged to be as much in the air as possible.

The Ostiacks are poor and lazy, and in summer time live mostly on fish. In winter they go into the woods with their bows and arrows, their dogs and nets, to kill sables ermines, bears, rein-deer, elks, martens, and foxes. Part of these furs are paid as a tax to the emperor, and the rest are sold to the Russian governors or private persons. In the winter they build their huts in woods and forests, where they find the greatest plenty

of game, and dig deep in the earth to secure themselves from the cold, laying a roof of bark or rushes over their huts, which are soon covered with snow. In summer they build above ground, on the banks of the rivers, to enjoy the convenience of fishing, and make no difficulty of forsaking their habitations. They have a sort of princes among them, in one of whose houses some European travellers found four wives. One of these had a red cloth coat on, which was set off with all sorts of glass beads. There was no other furniture than cradles and chests made of the bark of trees sewed together. Their beds consisted of wood shavings, almost as soft as feathers, and their children lie naked upon them in cradles. They can neither read nor write, nor do they cultivate the land, and seem totally ignorant of times past. They have neither temples nor priests; and their boats are only made of the bark of trees sewed together. Their religion is pagan; and they have some little brazen idols, tolerably well cast, representing men and animals, all of which are dressed in silks, in the manner of Russian ladies. In general, however, they are ill made, every man being his own carver. They place them on the tops of hills, in groves, and in the pleasantest places their country affords, and sometimes before their huts; yet they have no set time for performing religious worship, but apply to their gods for success in all their undertakings. As they have no regular priests, every old man may devote himself to that service, and the office is frequently performed by the masters and head of families. Strahlenberg says, that when he was among them he saw one of their temples which was built of wood, in an oblong form, like a great barn, covered at the top with birch-bark. At the end of the wall supporting the gable was a kind of altar, made of timber, on which were placed two idols, representing a man and woman, dressed in all kinds of rags, and round these were other small figures, as deer, foxes, and hares, all which are roughly carved in wood, and also clothed in rags. They did not appear to have much devotion, nor any great reverence for their idols. When they offer sacrifices they present the beast to the idol, and having bound it, an old man puts up the petititon of those who brought the offering; he then lets fly an arrow at the beast, and the people assist in killing it. It is then drawn three times round the idol; and the blood being received into a vessel, they sprinkle it on their houses; they afterwards dress the flesh and eat it, rejoicing, and singing their country songs: they also besmear the idol with the blood of the sacrifice, and grease their mouths with the fat. What they cannot eat they carry home to their families, and make presents of it to their neighbours; they as often sacrifice a fish as a beast. At the conclusion of the feast they shout, to shew their gratitude to the idol for his attending and accepting their devotions; for they are persuaded that the saint of hero, represented by the image, always attends their sacrifices, after which he returns to his abode in the air.

The natives of Kamtchatka are as wild as the country itself. Some of them have no fixed habitations, but wander from place to place with their herds of rein-deer; others have settled habitations, and reside upon the banks of the rivers, and the shore of the Penschinska Sea, living upon fish and sea animals, and such herbs as grow upon the shore. The former dwell in huts covered with deer-skins; the latter in places dug out of the earth, both in a very barbarous manner. Their dispositions and tempers are rough,

and they are entirely ignorant of letters or religion. The natives are divided into three different people, namely the Kamtchatkans, Korcki, and Kuriles. The Kamtchatkans live upon the south side of the promontory of Kamtchatka; the Korcki inhabit the northern parts, on the coast of the Penchinska Sea, and round the Eastern Ocean, almost to the river Anadir, whose mouth lies in that ocean, almost in 68° N. lat; the Kuriles inhabited the islands in that sea, reaching as far as those of Japan.

They inhabit villages, which they call Ostrogs, each of which consists of one or more huts, constructed in the following manner. They dig a hole in the earth about five feet deep, the breadth and length proportioned to the number of people designed to live in it. In the middle of this hole they plant four thick wooden pillars; over these they lay balks, upon which they form the roof or ceiling, leaving in the middle a square opening which serves them for a window and chimney; this they cover with grass and earth, so that the outward appearance is like a round hillock; but within they are all an oblong square with the fire in one of the long sides of the square; between the pillars round the walls of their huts they make benches, upon which each family lies separately; but on that side opposite to the fire there are no benches, it being designed for their kitchen furniture, in which they keep the victuals for themselves and dogs. In those huts where there are no benches there are balks laid upon the floor and covered with mats. They adorn the walls of their huts with mats made of grass. They enter their huts by ladders, commonly placed near the fire hearth; so that when they are eating in their huts the steps of the ladder become so hot and the smoke so thick that it is almost impossible for a stranger to go up or down without being burnt and even stifled to death; but the natives find no difficulty in it; though they can only fix their toes on the steps of the ladder, they mount like squirrels; nor do the women hesitate to go through the smoke with their children upon their shoulders, though there is another opening through which the women are allowed to pass; but if any man pretend to do the same, he would be laughed at. The Kamtchatkans live in these huts all the winter, after which they go into others called balagans: these serve them not only to live in during the summer but also for magazines. They are made in the following manner: nine pillars, about two fathoms long or more, are fixed in the ground and bound together; with balks laid over them, which they cover with rods, and over all lay grass, fastening spars, and a round sharp roof at top, which they cover with brambles and thatch with grass. They fasten the lower ends of the spars to the balks with ropes and thongs, and have a door on each side, one directly opposite to the other. They make use of the same kind of huts to keep their fish, &c. till winter comes, or when they can more easily remove it; and this without any guard, only taking away the ladders. If these buildings were not so high the wild beasts would undoubtedly plunder them: for, notwithstanding all their precaution, the bears sometimes climb up and force their way into their magazines, especially in the harvest, when the fish and berries begin to grow scarce.

Their boats contain two persons, one of whom sits at the prow, the other at the stern. Their clothes are generally made of skins either of beasts, birds, or fishes; and their method of travelling is usually in sledges drawn by dogs.

CHAPTER III.

The History of Russia——*Till the accession of Peter I.*

ACCORDING to several authors of credit, the Russians derived their origin from the Slavi or Slavonians, corruptly called Sclavonians; who settled first along the banks of the Volga, and afterwards near the Danube, in the countries named Bulgaria and Hungary: but being driven from thence by the Romans (whom the Russians called Wolochers or Wolotaners), they first removed to the river Borysthenes or Dnieper, then over-ran Poland, and, as it is reported, built the city of Kiow. Afterwards they extended their colonies farther north, to the rivers which ran into the Ilmen lake, and laid the foundation of the city of Novogorod. The towns of Smolensk and Tsnerikow appear also to have been built by them, though the dates of these events cannot be ascertained. The most ancient inhabitants, not only of Russia, but all over Siberia, quite to the borders of China, are called Tshudi; for professor Muller, on inquiring in those parts by whom the ancient building and sepulchral monuments he saw there were erected, was every where answered, that they were the works of the Tshudi, who in ancient times had lived in that country.

In the ninth century the Scandinavians, that is, the Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes, emigrated from the north, and, crossing the Baltic, went to seek habitations in Russia. They first subdued the Courlanders, Livonians, and Esthonians; and extending their conquest still further, they exacted tribute from the Novogorodians, settled kings over them, and traded as far as Kiow, and even to Greece. These new invaders were called Waregers; which, according to professor Muller, signifies sea-faring people; or, if derived from the old northern word war, it signifies warlike men. To those Waregers, the name of Russes, or Russians, is thought, by the most eminent authors, to owe its origin; but the etymology of the word itself is entirely uncertain.

In the dark ages of which we are speaking, it is pretty certain, that Russia was divided among a great number of petty princes, who made war upon each other, with the ferocity and cruelty of wild beasts, so that the whole country was reduced to the utmost misery, when Gostomisel a chief of the Novogorodians, pitying the unhappy fate of his countrymen, and seeing no other method of remedying their calamities, advised them to offer the government of their country to the Waregers. The proposal was readily accepted, and three princes of great abilities and valour were sent to govern them; namely, Ruric, Sincus, and Truwor, generally supposed to have been brothers. The first took up his residence at Ladoga in the principality of Novogorod; the second at Bielo Osero or the White Lake; and the third kept his court at Isborsk, or, according to others, at a small town then called Twertzog, in the principality of Plesko. The three brothers reigned amicably, and made considerable additions to their dominions; all of which at length, devolved to Ruric, by the death of Sincus, and Truwor; but what the conquests of the two brothers were we have no records to inform us.

Ruric, to his honour, became zealous for the strict administration of justice ; and issued a command to all the boyars who possessed territories under him, to exercise it in an exact and uniform manner. To this end it was necessary there should be general laws. And this naturally leads us to conjecture, that letters were not entirely unknown in his dominions.

The Russian empire continued to flourish till the end of the reign of Wolodomir, who ascended the throne in the year 976. Having settled the affairs of his empire in peace, he demanded in marriage the princess Anne, sister to the Greek emperor Basilius Porphyrogenitus. His suit was granted on condition that he should embrace Christianity. With this the Russian monarch complied ; and that vast empire was thenceforward considered as belonging to the patriarchate of Constantinople. Wolodomir received the name of Basilius the day on which he was baptized ; and according to the Russian annals 20,000 of his subjects were baptized the same day. Michael Syra, or Cyril, a Greek, sent by Photius, the patriarch of Constantinople, was accepted as metropolitan of the whole country. At the same time Wolodomir put away all his former wives and concubines, of whom he had upwards of 800, and by whom he had 12 sons, who were baptized on the same day with himself. The idols of paganism were now thrown down ; churches and monasteries were erected, towns built, and the arts began to flourish. The Sclavarian letters were now first introduced into Russia ; and Wolodomir sent missionaries to convert the Bulgarians ; but only three or four of their princes came to him and were baptized. These events happened in the year 987.

Wolodomir called the arts from Greece, cultivated them in the peaceable period of his reign, and rewarded their professors with generosity, that he might dispel the clouds of ignorance which enveloped his country, call forth the genius of his countrymen, and render them happy. He also founded public schools, and enacted a law concerning the methods of instructing youth, and directing the conduct of the masters appointed to instruct them. He died in 1008 ; and, contrary to all rules of sound policy and prudence, divided his empire among his 12 sons. The consequence was, that they fell to making war and destroying one another as soon as their father was dead. Suantepolk, one of the brothers, having destroyed and seized upon the dominions of two others, was himself driven out by Jarislaus, and obliged to fly to Boleslaus, king of Poland. This brought on a dreadful war betwixt the Poles and Russians ; in which the former were victorious, and the latter lost a great part of their dominions.

Jarislaus, finding himself unsuccessful in the war with Poland, turned his arms against each of his brothers, and united their territories with his own. He gained some advantages over the Cossacks, and having at length obtained peace with Poland, the empire enjoyed a large portion of tranquillity. He became the patron of letters, invited learned men to his court, and caused many Greek books to be translated into the Russian language. It was he that, in the year 1019, gave the people of Novogorod several laws, under the title of Gramota Soudebnaia, to be observed in the courts of justice. These are the first laws that were reduced to writing in Russia ; and what renders them remarkable is the confirmity they have with those of the other northern nations. He founded a pub-

lic school at Novogorod, where he maintained and educated 300 children at his own expence. His court was the most brilliant of the north, and furnished an asylum to unfortunate princes. He died in 1052; and fell into the same error which his father had committed, by dividing his dominions among his five sons. This produced a repetition of the bloody scenes which had been acted by the sons of Wolodomir; the Poles took advantage of the distracted state of affairs to make inroads and invasions; and the empire continued in the most deplorable situation till the year 1237, when it was totally subdued by the Tartars. We are not informed of any particulars of this remarkable event, farther than that innumerable multitudes of these barbarians, headed by their khan Batto or Battus, after ravaging great part of Poland and Silesia, broke suddenly into Russia, where they committed the greatest cruelties. Most of the Russian princes, among whom was the great duke George Sevoloditz, were made prisoners, and racked to death; and in short, none found mercy but such as acknowledged themselves the subjects of the Tartars. The imperious conqueror imposed upon the Russians every thing that is most mortifying in slavery; insisting that they should have no other princes than such as he approved of; that they should pay him yearly a tribute, to be brought by the sovereigns themselves on foot, who were to present it humbly to the Tartarian ambassador on horseback. They were also to prostrate themselves before the haughty Tartar; to offer him milk to drink; and if any drops of it fell down to lick them up; a singular mark of servility, which continued near 260 years.

This long period of oppression was at length terminated by Ivan Vassilevitch, who succeeded his father Vassile in 1462. He openly disclaimed all subjection to the Tartars, attacked their dominions, and made himself master of Casan, where he was solemnly crowned with the diadem of that kingdom, which is said to be the same that is now used for the coronation of the Russian sovereigns. The province of Permia, with great part of Lapland and Asiatic Bulgaria soon submitted to him; and Greek Novogorod, a city then so famous that the Russians used to express its vast importance by the proverbial expression of Who can resist God and the Great Novogorod? was reduced by his generals after a seven years siege, and yielded him an immense treasure; no less, say some writers, than 300 cart loads of gold and silver and other valuable effects. Alexander Witold, waivode of Lithuania, was in possession of this rich place, from which he had exacted for some years an annual tribute of 100,000 rubles, a prodigious sum for those days, and for that country. When it was taken by Ivan Vassilevitch, he, the better to secure his conquest, put it under the protection of the Poles, voluntarily rendered himself their tributary for it, and accepted a governor from the hand of their king Casimir, a weak and indolent prince, from whom he well knew he had nothing to fear. The Novogorodians continued to enjoy all their privileges till about two years after; when Ivan, ambitious of reigning without controul, entered their city with a numerous retinue, under pretence of keeping to the Greek faith, he being accused of an intention to embrace the Romish religion; and, with the assistance of the archbishop Theophilus, stripped them all of their remaining riches. He then deposed the treacherous prelate, and established over Novogorod new magistrates, creatures of his

own ; destroying at once, by this means, a noble city, which, had its liberties been protected and its trade encouraged, might have proved to him an inexhaustible fund of wealth. All the north beheld with terror and astonishment the rapid increase of the victor's power ; foreign nations courted his alliance ; and the several petty princes of Russia submitted to him without resistance, and acknowleged themselves his vassals.

The remaining part of his reign was chiefly employed in carrying on wars with Poland, Lithuania, and the knights of Livonia. He nevertheless bestowed some degree of attention on the encouragement of commerce, employed foreign artists and artificers, and introduced the use of cannon and gunpowder. He died in the year 1505.

The reign of his successor, Vassili, was unfortunate. He sustained a total defeat from the Poles, who also stirred up the Tartars to invade Russia. In 1521 the Tartars seized Moscow, and obliged Vassili to sign a writing, in which he promised to pay them a tribute for every one of his subjects. The Tartar general even set up his own statue at Moscow, and obliged Vassili to prostrate himself before it. His successor, Ivan Vassilevitch II. was an able and active prince. As soon as he entered in the 19th year of his age he displayed an inclination to rescue his subjects from their deplorable ignorance and barbarism. For this purpose he sent a splendid embassy to the emperor Charles V. who was then at Augsburg, to desire the renewal of the treaty of friendship, which had been concluded with Maximilian ; and offering to enter into a league with him against the Turks, as enemies to the Christian religion ; for his farther information in which, particularly in regard to the doctrine and ceremonies of the Latin church, he requested that his ambassador might be allowed to send from Germany to Russia proper priests, to instruct him and his subjects. With these he likewise desired to have some wise and experienced statesmen, able to civilize the wild people under his government ; and also, the better to help to polish them, he requested that he would send mechanics and artists of every kind ; in return for all which, he offered to furnish two tons of gold yearly, for 20 years together, to be employed in the war against the Turks. The emperor readily agreed to the desire of the czar ; and the Russian ambassador accordingly engaged upwards of 300 German artists, who were directed to repair to Lubec, in order to proceed from thence to Livonia. But the Lubeckers, who were very powerful at that time, and aimed at nothing less than the engrossing of the whole commerce of the north, stopped them, and represented strongly to the emperor, in the name of all the merchants of Livonia, the dangerous consequences of thus affording instruction to the Russians ; who would soon avail themselves of it to ruin their trade and distress the subjects of his imperial majesty. The workmen and others intended for Russia were easily prevailed upon to return to their respective houses ; and the czar's ambassador was arrested upon his arrival at Lubec, and imprisoned there at the suit of the Livonians : however he made his escape shortly after ; and the czar, though provoked to the last degree at the behaviour of the Lubeckers, was obliged for some time to suspend his resentment.

His first enterprize was against the Tartars of Cassan, whom he reduced with some difficulty, and sent their king and queen prisoners to Moscow. His next conquest was

that of Astrican, of which he soon made himself master. He then turned his arms against the knights of Livonia, against whom he sent very numerous armies, who laid waste their country with extreme cruelty, and at length obliged the knights to dissolve their order, and suffer their country to be divided between the Swedes and Poles. In 1569 he entered into a treaty of commerce with England; captain Richard Chancellor having, a short time before, discovered a passage to Archangel in Russia, through the White Sea, by which that empire was likely to be supplied with foreign goods without the assistance either of Poland or Livonia.

In 1571 the Tartars invaded Russia with an army of 70,000 men. The Russians, who might have prevented their passing the Volga, retired before them till they came within 18 miles of the city of Moscow, where they were totally defeated. The czar no sooner heard this news than he retired, with his most valuable effects, to a well fortified cloister; upon which the Tartars entered the city, plundered it, and set fire to several churches. A violent storm, which happened at the same time, soon spread the flames all over the city; which was entirely reduced to ashes in six hours, though its circumference was upwards of 40 miles. The fire likewise communicated itself to a powder magazine at some distance from the city; by which accident upwards of 50 rods of the city wall, with all the buildings upon it were destroyed; and, according to the best historians, upwards of 120,000 citizens were burnt or buried in the ruins, besides women, children, and foreigners. The castle, however, which was strongly fortified, could not be taken; and the Tartars, hearing that a formidable army was coming against them, under the command of Magnus, duke of Holstein whom Vassilevitch had made king of Livonia, thought proper to retire.

The Livonians, Poles, and Swedes gained, in the latter part of this reign, great advantages over the Russians, and might probably have extinguished their empire, had they not been divided by mutual jealousies. After having seen his country restored to peace, by a pacification with Poland and a truce with Sweden, Ivan died in 1584.

This great prince was succeeded by his son Theodore Ivanovitch; a man of such weak understanding that he was totally unfit for government. Under him, therefore, the Russian affairs fell into confusion, and Boris Gudenov, a nobleman, whose sister Theodore had married, found means to assume all the authority. At last, unable to bear even the name of a superior, he resolved to usurp the throne. For this purpose he is said to have caused the czar's brother, Demetrius, at that time only nine years of age, to be assassinated; and afterwards, knowing that no trust could be put in an assassin, he caused him aso to be murdered, lest he should divulge the secret. In 1597 the czar himself was taken ill and died, not without great suspicion of his being poisoned by Gudenov; of which indeed the czarina was so well convinced that she would never afterwards speak to her brother.

With Theodore ended the line of Ruric, who had governed the empire of Russia for upwards of 700 years. Boris, who in reality was possessed of all the power, and would indeed have suffered nobody else to reign, artfully pretended to be unwilling to accept the crown, till compelled to it by the entreaties of the people; and even then he put the

acceptance of it on the issue of an expedition, which he was about to undertake against the Tartars. The truth of the matter however was, that no Tartar army was in the field, nor had Boris any intention of invading that country; but by this pretence he asssembled an army of 500,000 men, which he thought the most effectual method of securing himself in his new dignity. In 1600 he concluded a peace with the Poles, but resolved to continue the war against the Swedes; however, being disappointed in some of his attempts against that nation, he entered into an alliance with the Swedish monarch, and even proposed a match between the king's brother and his daughter. But while these things were in agitation the city of Moscow was desolated by one of the most dreadful famines recorded in history. Thousands of people lay dead in the streets and highways, with their mouths full of hay, straw, or even the most filthy things, which they had been attempting to eat. In many houses the fattest person was killed, in order to serve for food to the rest. Parents were said to have eaten their children, and children their parents, or to have sold them to buy bread. One author (Petrius) says, that he himself saw a woman bite several pieces out of a child's arm as she was carrying it along; and captain Margaret relates, that four women, having ordered a peasant to come to one of their houses, under pretence of paying him for some wood, killed and eat up both him and his horse. This dreadful calamity lasted for three years, notwithstanding all the means which Boris could use to alleviate it; and in this time upwards of 500,000 people perished in the city.

In 1604 a young man appeared, who pretended to be Demetrius, whom Boris had been supposed to have caused to be murdered, as we have already seen. Being supported by the Poles he proved very troublesome to Boris all his lifetime; and after his death deprived Theodore Borissovitch, the new czar, of the empire; after which he ascended the throne himself, and married a Polish princess. However he held the empire but a short time, being killed in an insurrection of his subjects; and the unhappy czarina was sent prisoner to Jarislaw.

After the death of Demetrius, Zuski, who had conspired against him, was chosen czar; but rebellions continually taking place, and the empire being perpetually harrassed by the Poles and Swedes, in 1610 Zuski was deposed, and Uladislaus, son of Sigismund, king of Poland, was elected. However, the Poles representing to Sigismund that it would be more glorious for him to be the conqueror of Russia than only the father of its sovereign, he carried on the war with such fury, that the Russians, in despair, fell upon the Poles, who resided in great numbers at Moscow. The Poles, being well armed and mostly soldiers, had greatly the advantage; however they were on the point of being oppressed by numbers, when they fell upon the most cruel method of ensuring their success that could be devised. This was by setting fire to the city in several places; and while the distressed Russians ran to save their families, the Poles fell upon them sword in hand. In this confusion upwards of 100,000 people perished; but the event was, that the Poles were finally driven out and lost all footing in Russia.

The expulsion of the Poles was succeeded by the election of Theodorovitch Romanov, a young nobleman of 17 years of age, whose posterity, till the accession of the late empress,

continued to enjoy the sovereignty. He died in 1646, and was succeeded by his son Alexis; whose reign was a continual scene of tumult and confusion, being harrassed on all sides by external enemies, and having his empire perpetually disturbed by internal commotions.

The sources of these commotions were formed in the multiplicity and inconsistency of the laws at that period, and in the jarring claims of the nobles on the borders. An emmanoy ukase, or personal order, which is an edict of the sovereign signed with his own hand, was the only law of Russia. These edicts were as various as the opinions, prejudices, passions, or whims of men; and in the days of Alexis they produced endless contentions. To remedy this evil he made a selection from all the edicts of his predecessors, of such as had been familiarly current for 100 years; presuming that those either were founded in natural justice, or, during so long a currency, had formed the minds of the people to consider them as just. This digest, which he declared to be the common law of Russia, and which is prefaced by a sort of institute, is the standard law-book at this day, known by the title of the Ulogenie or Selection; and all edicts prior to it were declared to be obsolete. He soon made his novellæ, however, more bulky than the Ulogenie; and the additions by his successors are beyond enumeration. This was undoubtedly a great and useful work; but Alexis performed another still greater.

Though there are many works of judicature in this widely extended empire, the emperor has always been lord paramont, and could take a cause from any court immediately before himself. But as several of the old nobles had the remains of principalities in their families, and held their own courts, the sovereign or his ministers, at a distance up the country, frequently found it difficult to bring a culprit out of one of these hereditary feudal jurisdictions, and try him by the laws of the empire. This was a very disagreeable limitation of imperial power; and the more so that some families claimed even a right to repledge. A lucky opportunity offered of settling this dispute; and Alexis embraced it with great ability.

Some families on the old frontiers were taxed with their defence, for which they were obliged to keep regiments on foot; and as they were but scantily indemnified by the state, it sometimes required the exertion of authority to make them keep up their levies. When the frontiers, by the conquest of Casan, were far extended, those gentlemen found the regiments no longer burdensome; because, by the help of false musters, the former scanty allowance much more than reimbursed them for the expence of the establishment. The consequence was, that disputes rose among them about the right of guarding certain districts; and law-suits were necessary to settle their respective claims. These were tedious and intricate. One claimant shewed the order of the court, issued a century or two back to his ancestor, for the marching of his men, as a proof that the right was then in his family. His opponent proved that his ancestors had been the real lords of the marches; but that on account of the negligence the court had issued an emmanoy ukase to the other only in that particular period. The emperor ordered all the family archives to be brought to Moscow, and all documents on both sides to be collected. A time was set for the examination; a fine wooden-court house was built; every paper

was lodged under a good guard; the day was appointed when the court should be opened and the claims heard; but that morning the house, with all its contents, was, in two hours, consumed by fire. The emperor then said, "Gentlemen, henceforward your ranks, your privileges, and your courts are the the nation's, and the nation will guard itself. Your archives are, unfortunately, lost; but those of the nation remain. I am the keeper, and it is my duty to administer justice for all and to all. Your ranks are not private but national; attached to the services you are actually performing. Henceforward colonel Buturlin (a private gentleman) ranks before captain Viazemsky (an old prince)."

This constitution, which established the different ranks of Russia as they remain to this day, is, by Voltaire, ascribed to Peter: but it was the work of Alexis; who, when the situation of himself and his country is considered, must be allowed to have been a great and a good prince. He died in 1676, and was succeeded by his son Theodore Alexiovitch; who, after an excellent reign, during the whole of which he exerted himself to the utmost for the good of his subjects, died in 1682; having appointed his brother, Peter I. commonly called Peter the Great, his successor.

CHAPTER IV.

The History of Russia——*From the accession of Peter I. to that of Catharine II.*

THEODORE, the predecessor of Peter, had another brother named Ivan; but as he was subject to the falling sickness the czar had preferred Peter, though very young, to the succession. Through the intrigues, how of the princess Sophia, sister to Theodore, a strong party was formed in favour of Ivan; and soon after both Ivan and Peter were proclaimed sovereigns of Russia, under the administration of Sophia herself, who was declared regent. However this administration did not continue long; for the princess regent, having conspired against Peter, and having the misfortune to be discovered, was confined for life in a convent. From this time also John continued to be only a nominal sovereign till his death, which happened in 1696; Peter continuing to engross all the power.

It is to this emperor that Russia is universally allowed to owe her present greatness. The private character of Peter himself seems to have been but very indifferent. Though he had been married in his 18th year to a young and beautiful princess, he was not sufficiently restrained by the solemn ties of wedlock; and he was besides so much addicted to drunkenness, the prevailing vice of his country, that nobody could have imagined him capable of effecting the reformation upon his subjects, which he actually accomplished. In spite of all disadvantages, however, he applied himself to the military art and to civil government.

Being ashamed of the ignorance in which he had been brought up, he learned almost of himself, and without a master, enough of the High and Low Dutch languages to speak and write intelligibly in both. He looked upon the Germans and Hollanders as the most civilized nations; because the former had already practised some of those arts and manufactures in Moscow, which he was desirous of spreading throughout his empire; and the latter excelled in the art of navigation, which he considered as more necessary than any other. During the administration of the princess Sophia he had formed a design of establishing a maritime power in Russia.

Having reformed his army and introduced new discipline among them, he led his troops against the Turks; from whom, in 1696, he took the fortress of Azov; and had the satisfaction of seeing his fleet defeat that of the enemy. On his return to Moscow were struck the first medals that ever appeared in Russia. The legend was "Peter I. the august emperor of Russia." On the reverse was Azov, with these words, "Victorious by fire and water." Notwithstanding this success, however, Peter was very much chagrined at having his ships all built by foreigners; having besides as great an inclination to have a harbour on the Baltic as on the Euxine Sea. These considerations determined him to send some of the young nobility of his empire into foreign countries,

where they might improve. In 1697 he sent 60 young Russians into Italy; most of them to Venice, and the rest to Leghorn, in order to learn the method of constructing their galleys. Forty more were sent out by his direction for Holland, with an intent to instruct themselves in the art of building and working large ships: others were appointed for Germany, to serve in the land forces, and to learn the military discipline of that nation. At last he resolved to travel through different countries in person, that he might have the opportunity of profiting by his own observation and experience. In executing this great design he lived and worked like a common carpenter. He laboured hard at the forges, rope-yards, and at the several mills for the sawing of timber, manufacturing of paper, wire drawing, &c. In acquiring the art of a carpenter, he began with purchasing a boat, to which he made a mast himself, and by degrees he executed every part of the construction of a ship.

Besides this, Peter frequently went from Sweden to Amsterdam, where he attended the lectures of the celebrated Ruysch on anatomy. He also attended the lectures of burgomaster Witzen on natural philosophy. From this place he went, for a few days, to Utretcht, in order to pay a visit to king William III. of England, and on his return sent to Archangel a 60 gun ship, in the building of which he had assisted with his own hands. In 1698 he went over to England, where he employed himself in the same manner as he had done in Holland. Here he perfected himself in the art of ship-building; and having engaged a great number of artificers, he returned with them to Holland; from whence he set out for Vienna, where he paid a visit to the emperor; and was on the point of setting out for Venice, to finish his improvements, when he was informed of a rebellion broken out in his dominions. This was occasioned by the superstition and obstinacy of the Russians, who, having an almost invincible attachment to their old ignorance and barbarism, had resolved to dethrone the czar on account of his innovations. But Peter, arriving unexpectedly at Moscow, quickly put an end to their machinations, and took a most severe revenge on those who had been guilty. Having then made great reformations in every part of his empire, in 1700 he entered into a league with the kings of Denmark and Poland against Charles XII. of Sweden. Some of the particulars of this famous war are related in a former chapter. Here we shall only observe, that, from the conclusion of this war, Sweden ceased not only to be a formidable enemy against Russia, but even lost its political consequence in a great measure altogether.

Peter applied himself to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences, with equal assiduity as to the pursuits of war; and he made such acquisitions of dominion, even in Europe itself, that he may be said at the time of his death, to have been the most powerful prince of his age. He was not unfortunate in the czarovitz his eldest son, whom he contrived to get rid of by the forms of justice, and then ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be recognized as his successor; which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne upon the decease of her husband. She died in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II. a minor son to the czarovitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the

disgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. Peter died of the small-pox in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter the Great and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished; and the duke of Holstein, son to his eldest daughter, was, by the destination of the late empress, entitled to the crown: but the Russians, for political reasons, filled their throne with Anne, duchess of Courland, second daughter to Ivan, Peter's eldest brother; though her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburg, was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted of the crown under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, asserted the prerogative of her ancestors, and punished the aspiring Dolgorucki family, who had imposed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is said, that they themselves might govern. She raised her favourite Biron to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give away to many severe executions on his account. Upon her death, in 1740, Ivan, the son of her niece, the princess of Mecklenburgh, by Antony Ulric, of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle, was, by her will, entitled to the succession: but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princess of Mecklenburg and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburg to arrest Biron; who was tried and condemned to die, but was sent in exile to Siberia.

The administration of the princess Anne of Mecklenburg and her husband was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German connections, disagreeable, not only to the Russians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithstanding a prosperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princess Elizabeth, daughter by Catharine to Peter the Great, formed such a party, that, in one night's time, she was declared and proclaimed empress of the Russians; and the princess of Mecklenburg, her husband, and son, were made prisoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be said to have been more glorious than that of any of her predecessors, her father excepted. She abolished capital punishments, and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, till her time unknown in Russia: but at the same time she punished the counts Munich and Osterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the last administration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden; and settled the succession to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the most equitable foundation. Having gloriously finished a war, which had been stirred up against her with Sweden, she replaced the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who was descended from her eldest sister, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand duke of Russia; and soon after her accession to the throne she called him to her court; where he renounced the succession to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, by whom he had a son, who was now heir to the Russian empire.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expence of a large subsidy; but many political and some privite reasons, it is said, determined her to take part with the house of Austria against the king of Prussia, in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the success of the war, which was in disfavour of Prussia, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in field and cabinet. Her conquests were such as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was, perhaps, saved only by her critical death, on January 5th, 1762.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III. grand prince of Russia, and duke of Holstein; a prince whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne, possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of his Prussian majesty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have surmounted the effects of even those peculiarities, unpopular as they were then in Russia; but it is said that he aimed at reformations in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of the clergy. He was certainly a weak man, who had no opinions of his own, but adopted the sentiments of any person who took the trouble to teach them. His chief amusement was buffoonery; and he would sit for hours looking with pleasure at a merry-andrew, singing drunken and vulgar songs. He was a stranger to the country, its inhabitants, and manners; and suffered himself to be persuaded, by those about him, that the Russians were fools and beasts, unworthy of his attention, except to make them, by means of the Prussian discipline, good fighting machines. These sentiments regulated his whole conduct, and prepared the way for that revolution which improprieties of a different kind tended to hasten.

Becoming attached to one of the Vorontzoff ladies, sister to the princess Dashkoff, he disgusted his wife, who was then a lovely woman, in the prime of life, of great natural talents, and great acquired accomplishments; whilst the lady, whom he preferred to her, was but one degree above an idiot. The princess Dashkoff, who was married to a man whose genius was not superior to that of the emperor, being dame d'honneur and lady of the bed-chamber, had of course much of the empress's company. Similarity of situations knit these two illustrious personages in the closest friendship. The princess being a zealous admirer of the French economists, could make her conversation both amusing and instructive. She retailed all her statistical knowledge; and finding the empress a willing hearer, she spoke of her in every company as a prodigy of knowledge, judgment, and philanthrophy. Whilst the emperor, by his buffoonery and attachment to foreign manners, was daily incurring more and more the odium of his subjects, the popularity of his wife was rapidly increasing; and some persons about the court expressed their regret that so much knowledge of government, such love of humanity, and such ardent wishes for the prosperity of Russia should only furnish conversations with Catharina Romanovna. The empress and her favourite did not let these expressions pass unobserved: they continued their studies in concert; and whilst the former was employed on her famous code of laws for a great empire, the latter always reported progress, till the

middling circles of Moscow and St. Petersburg began to speak familiarly of the blessings which they might enjoy if these speculations could be realized.

Meanwhile Peter III. was giving fresh cause of discontent. He at length recalled from Siberia count Munich, who was indeed a sensible, brave, and worthy man; but as he was smarting under the effects of Russian despotism, and had grounds of resentment against most of the great families, he did not much discourage the emperor's unpopular conduct, but only tried to moderate it and give it a system. Peter, however, was impatient. He publicly ridiculed the exercise and evolutions of the Russian troops; and hastily adopting the Prussian discipline, without digesting and fitting it for the constitution of his own forces, he completely ruined himself by disgusting the army.

What he lost was soon easily gained by the emissaries of Catharine. Four regiments of guards, amounting to 8000 men, were instantly brought over by the three brothers, Orloffs, who had contrived to ingratiate themselves with their officers; the people at large were in a state of indifference, out of which they were roused by the following means. A little manuscript was handed about, containing principles of legislation for Russia, founded on natural rights, and on the claims of the different classes of people; which had insensibly been formed, and become so familiar as to appear natural. In that performance was proposed a convention of deputies from all the classes and from every part of the empire, to converse, but without authority, on the subjects of which it treated, and to inform the senate of the result of their deliberations. It passed for the work of her majesty, and was much admired.

While Catharine was thus high in the public esteem and affection, the emperor took alarm at her popularity, and, in a few days, came to the resolution of confining her for life, and then marrying his favourite. The servants of that favourite betrayed her to her sister, who imparted the intelligence to the empress. Catharine saw her danger, and instantly formed her resolution. She must either tamely submit to perpetual imprisonment, and, perhaps, a cruel and ignominious death, or contrive to hurl her husband from the throne. No other alternative was left her; and the consequence was what undoubtedly was expected. The proper steps were taken; folly fell before abilities and address; and in three days the revolution was accomplished.

When the emperor saw that all was lost, he attempted to enter Cronstadt from Oranienbaum, a town on the gulph of Finland, 39 versts or 26 miles from Petersburg The centinels at the harbour presented their muskets at the barge; and though they were not loaded, and the men had no cartridges, he drew back. The English sailors called from ship to ship for some person to head them, declaring that they would take him in and defend him; but he precipitately withdrew. Munich received him again at Oranienbaum, and exhorted him to mount his horse and head his guards, swearing to live and die with him. He said, "No! I see it cannot be done without shedding much of the blood of my brave Holsteinians. I am not worthy of the sacrifice." The revolution was settled, and Catharine declared autocratrix. The crown was said to be pressed upon her; and her son was proclaimed her heir, and, as such, great duke of all the

The unfortunate Peter died on the 17th of July, just one week after his deposition. Of the manner of his death different accounts have been given. By some he is said to have been poisoned; by others to have been strangled by one of the Orloffs; and a few have thought that he perished by the same means as Henry VI. of England. Whether the empress was accessary to his death is not known; though it is certain, that so far from making any inquiry after his murderers, she affected to believe that he had died naturally of the piles.

CHAPTER V.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE——*During the reign of Catharine II.*

HAVING secured the sovereignty, by the means recited in the preceding chapter, Catharine behaved with the greatest magnanimity and moderation. She retained Munich, pardoned the countess Vorontzoff, the emperor's favourite, and afterwards, on her marriage with Mr. Paulotsky, made a handsome settlement on them. She allowed the expectations of golden days and a philosophical government to become the subject of fashionable conversation; and the princess Dashkoff was completely happy. The convention of deputies was even resolved on; and as they were not to be elected by the people, except here and there for show, prince Galitzin and count Panin, whom she had completely gained over, and who had the greatest abilities of any Russians about court, were at immense pains in appointing a proper set. In the mean time a great number of showy patriotic projects were begun. A grave English gentleman was invited over to superintend the institution of schools for civil and moral education; and the empress was most liberal in her appointments. This institution failed, however, to produce the effects expected from it. The clergyman appointed, though a most excellent character and real philanthropist, had views too contracted for the sphere in which he was placed; and Mr. Betskoy, the Russian Mæcenas, to whom the empress referred him for instructions, preferred declamation, stage-playing, and ballads to all other accomplishments.

In the mean time elegance of all kinds was introduced, before the public were taught the principles of morals. The nobles were sent a travelling; and as the Russians more easily acquire foreign languages than the people of most other nations, have great vivacity without flippancy, and, in general, understand play, these travellers were every where well received, especially at Paris; where reasons of state contributed not a little to procure to them that attention with which they were treated. They were ravished with the manners of foreign courts, and imported fashions and fineries without bounds. The sovereign turned all this to her own account, by encouraging a dissipation which rendered court favours necessary, and made the people about her forget their Utopian dreams.

The convention of deputies at last assembled in the capital. The empress' book of instructions came forth; and some great things were doubtless expected. The most consequential of the deputies were privately instructed to be very cautious, and informed that carriages and guards were ready for Siberia. There was a grand procession at their presentation. Each had the honour of kissing her majesty's hand and receiving a gold medal. They met in form to recognize one another, then parted and have never met since. The thing melted away without notice; and the princess Dashkoff was handsomely given to understand that her counsels were no longer necessary, and that she could not do better than take the amusements of the tour of Europe. She was

liberally supplied, and has ever since been treated with great kindness, but kept amused with something very different from legislation.

In the mean time many patriotic things were really done. Taxes were frequently remitted where they were burthensome. Every person was declared free who had served government without pay for two years. No man was allowed to send boors from his cultivated estates to his mines in Siberia, nor to any distant estates but for the purpose of agriculture. Many colonies of German peasants were, in various places, settled on the crown lands, to teach the natives the management of the dairy; a branch of rural economy of which the Russians were, till that period, so completely ignorant, that there is not in their language an appropriated word for butter, or cheese, or even for cream.

The Russians hoped likewise to be instructed in agriculture, but the colonists were poor and ignorant; and this part of the project came to nothing like the great national schools. Other improvements took place however in favour of commerce; for all barriers were removed, and goods suffered to pass through the empire duty-free. The empress, with great liberality, encouraged the introduction of arts and manufactures. An academy was instituted of sculpture, painting, architecture, &c.; a magnificent and elegant building was erected for it, and many elves supported it at the expence of the crown. Several very promising youths have been educated in that academy; but as the Russians are childishly fond of finery, and cannot be persuaded that any thing fine was ever done by their own countrymen, the students are all, on leaving the academy, suffered to starve.

In recording the various events of the reign of Catharine, it is necessary to pursue a different order to that of time. We shall therefore first relate the steps she took in order to secure her possession of the throne; then describe her private character and the plans she formed for the benefit of her country; then notice her interference, by intrigues or war, in the transactions of other nations; and conclude with some brief account of her last sickness and death.

The news of the revolution which had seated Catharine on the throne was soon spread over Europe; and none of the sovereigns, [illegible]ey knew by what steps Catharine had mounted the throne, hesitated for a moment to acknowledge her title. She was not, however, at perfect ease in [illegible] own mind; nor was her right recognized by all her subjects. Though she published manifestoes, setting forth the intentions of the late emperor towards her and her son, which made resistance necessary; though, in these papers, she attributed her elevation to the wishes of her people and the providence of God; and though she called upon all who were sincerely attached to the orthodox faith of the Greek church to consider the sudden death of Peter as the judgment of heaven in favour of the revolution, yet in the distant provinces, no exultations were heard; both soldiers and peasants observed a gloomy silence. Even at Moscow so great was the disaffection to Catharine's government, that it was some time before she could venture to go to that city to be crowned; and she found in it at last so cold a reception that she very quickly returned to St. Petersburg.

Beside the general disgust which the death of Peter had excited, she had to contend with the intriguing disposition of many of those conspirators who had at first hazarded every thing for her service, but whose affection she had since lost by the extreme partiality with which she distinguished the Orloffs. Several plots were excited by different persons, in different parts of the empire, in favour of prince Ivan, whose short reign was mentioned in the preceding chapter. Orders were therefore given that if any attempts were made to rescue him from his confinement, his keepers should immediately put him to death. An attempt was made by a very inferior officer, as some have supposed, by the instructions of Catharine, and her bloody order was instantly obeyed. The assassins were rewarded and promoted in the army; but the officer who attempted to rescue the prince was condemned to death, and suffered unexpectedly the sentence of the law. The brothers and sisters of Ivan, who had been kept in a prison different from his, were sent to Denmark; and to provide them with necessaries suitable to their rank, the empress made them a present of 200,000 rubles, and paid annually to the maintenance of their dignity, a pension of 30,000.

The empress Elizabeth, who was a very sensual princess, had borne three natural children to the grand Veneur, Alexey Gregorievitch Razumoffsky. Of these children the youngest was a girl, brought up under the name of princess Tarakanoff. Prince Radzivil, who had distinguished himself by opposing the empress's designs in Poland, conceived the project of placing the young princess on the throne of her ancestors; and having gained over the persons to whom her education was intrusted, he carried her off to Rome, as a place of safety. Catharine, in return, seized his large estates; and he and the princess were reduced to extreme poverty. Radzivil repaired to Poland in order to learn what could be done to forward his great enterprize; and scarcely had he arrived there, when an offer was made to restore him to his possessions, upon condition of his carrying his ward to St. Petersburg. This he refused; but had the baseness to promise that he would give himself no further concern about the daughter of Elizabeth; and he was put in possession of all his estates.

By the instructions of the empress, Alexius Orloff, who commanded the Russian fleet at the Dardanelles, rapaired to Rome, got access to young Tarakanoff, and found means to persuade her that all Russia was ready to revolt from Catharine, and place her on the throne of her mother. To convince her of his sincerity he pretended to feel for her the tenderest and most respectful passion; and the unsuspicious lady was induced to accept of him as a husband. The ruffian, who, it was believed, assassinated the grandson of Peter the Great, did not hesitate to seduce and betray his grand-daughter. Under pretence of having the marriage ceremony performed according to the rites of the Greek church, he suborned some subaltern villains to personate priests and lawyers; thus combining profanation with imposture against the unprotected and too confident Tarakanoff.

Having been treated for some days, both at Rome and at Leghorn, with all the respect due to a sovereign, the unsuspecting princess expressed a wish to go on board a Russian ship of war. This was just what Orloff wanted. Attended by a numerous

and obsequious train, she was rowed from the shore, in a boat with magnificent ensigns, hoisted upon the deck of the ship in a splendid chair, and immediately handcuffed. In vain did she throw herself at the feet of her pretended husband, and conjure him by every thing tender which had passed between them. She was carried down into the hold; the next day the vessel sailed for St. Petersburg; where, upon her arrival, the princess was shut up in the fortress, and what became of her since was never known. Such were the means which Catharine scrupled not to employ, in order to get rid of all her pretenders to the throne.

In the private character of Catharine we distinguish a mixture of the most splendid excellencies and detestable crimes. Cruel and perfidious, whenever cruelty and perfidy appeared necessary to secure her safety or enlarge her dominions; she was on every other occasion just, generous, and humane; equally disposed to forgive her enemies and to reward her friends. She was a strict economist in the management of her time and her treasure. She rose at six, was temperate at all her meals, and retired to rest by eleven. Though she assumed, on particular occasions, the utmost imaginable state, and displayed a more than Asiatic magnificence, she was, in conversation with her courtiers, obliging and communicative, and well knew how to blend the most lofty dignity with the sweetest condescension. She superintended the education of her grand-children, and wrote for them books of instruction. She also kept a great number of children in her apartments, who shared in the care she bestowed on her grand-children, and whose caresses she returned with extreme complaisance. Though she always professed the deepest reverence for the Greek church, she was known to be a disciple of the French philosophers, and the libertine profligacy of her morals well accorded with the looseness of her religious principles.

For her people she laboured, and that most usefully. She introduced into the administration of justice the greatest reformation of which the half civilized state of Russia would, perhaps, admit. She spared neither trouble nor expence to diffuse over the empire the light of science, and the benefits of useful and elegant arts; and she protected, as far as she could, the poor from the oppression of the rich. About the middle of 1767 she conceived the idea of sending several learned men to travel through the interior of her vast dominions, to determine the geographical position of the principal places, to mark their temperature, and to examine into the nature of their soil, their vegetable and mineral productions, and the manners of the people by whom they were inhabited. To this employment she appointed Pallas, Gmelin, Euler, and many others of the highest eminence in the republic of letters; from whose journals of these interesting travels large additions have been made to the general stock of useful knowledge. This survey of the empire and the maps made from it, had Catharine done nothing else, would alone have been sufficient to render her name immortal. Well convinced in her own mind that it is not so much by the power of arms as by precedence in science that nations obtain a conspicuous place in the annals of the world, with a laudable zeal she encouraged artists and scholars of all denominations. She granted new prvileges to the two academies of sciences and arts encouraged such of the youth as had behaved well in

these national institutes to travel for farther improvement over Europe, by bestowing upon them, for three years, large pensions to defray their expence; and to remove as much as possible the Russian prejudice against all kinds of learning, she granted patents of nobility to those, who, during their education, had conducted themselves with propriety, and become proficients in any branch of useful or elegant knowledge. Still farther to encourage the fine arts in her dominions, she assigned an annual sum of 5000 rubles for the translation of foreign literary works into the Russian language.

In the year 1768 the small-pox raged at St. Petersburg, and proved fatal to vast numbers of all ranks and of every age. The empress was desirous to introduce the practice of innoculation among her subjects; and resolved to set the example by having herself and her son innoculated. With this view she applied for a physician from England, and Dr. Thomas Dimsdale of Hertford being recommended to her, he repaired with his son to the capital of Russia; where he innoculated, first the empress, then the grand duke, and afterwards many of the nobility. The experiment proving successful, he was created a baron of the empire, appointed actual counsellor of state, and physician to her imperial majesty, with a pension of 500*l.* sterling a-year, to be paid him in England, beside 10,000*l.* which he immediately received. So popular was the empress at this period, that by a decree of the senate the anniversary of her recovery from the small-pox was enjoined to be celebrated as a religious festival; and it has ever since been observed as such.

One of the first important foreign transactions of Catharine was the exertion of her influence in the elevation of the late king of Poland. He had been formerly considered as her lover, if that appellation be due to those who violate the sacred engagements of wedlock, but she soon evidently proved that she was not actuated on that occasion by any remains of her former attachment. We have elsewhere shewn, how, in concert with Prussia and Austria, she invaded his kingdom, and annexed great part of it to the territories of Russia.

The kings of Poland were anciently hereditary and absolute; but afterwards became elective and limited. In the reign of Louis, towards the end of the 15th century, several limitations were laid on the royal prerogative. In that of Casimir IV. who ascended the throne in 1446, representatives from the several palatinates were called also to the diet; the legislative power till then having been lodged in the states, and the executive in the king and senate. On the decease of Sigismund Augustus, it was enacted by law, that the choice of a king for the future, should perpetually remain free and open to all the nobles of the kingdom.

The place of election was the field of Wola, at the gates of Warsaw. All the nobles of the kingdom had a right of voting. The Poles encamped on the left side of the Vistula, and the Lithuanians on the right, each under the banners of their respective palatinates; which made a sort of civil army, consisting of between 150 and 200,000 men, assembled to exercise the highest act of freedom. Those who were not able to provide a horse and a sabre stood behind on foot, armed with scythes, and did not seem at all less proud than the rest, as they had the same right of voting.

The field of election was surrounded by a ditch, with three gates, in order to avoid confusion ; one to the east, for Great Poland ; another to the south, for Little Poland ; and a third to the west, for Lithuania. In the middle of the field, which was called Kolan, was erected a great building of wood, named the szopa, or hall for the senate, at whose debates the deputies were present, and carried the result of them to the several palatinates. The part which the marshal acted upon this occasion was very important : for being the mouth of the nobility, he had it in his power to do great service for the candidates ; he was also to draw up the instrument of election, and the king elect must take it only from his hand.

It was prohibited, upon pain of being declared a public enemy, to appear at the election with regular troops, in order to avoid all violence. But the nobles, who were always armed with pistols and sabres, committed violence against one another, at the time that they cried out " Liberty !'

When they did not come to this extremity, no election could possibly be carried on with more order, decency, and appearance of freedom. The primate, in few words, recapitulated to the nobles on horseback the respective merits of the candidates ; he exhorted them to choose the most worthy, invoked heaven, gave his blessing to the assembly, and remained alone with the marshal of the diet while the senators dispersed themselves into the several palatinates to promote an unanimity of sentiments. If they succeeded, the primate went himself to collect the votes, naming once more all the candidates. " Szoda," answered the nobles, " that is the man we choose ;" and instantly the air resounded with his name, with cries of Vivat, and the noise of pistols. If all the palatines agreed in their nominations, the primate went on horseback ; and then the profoundest silence succeeding to the greatest noise, he asks three times if all are satisfied ; and after a general approbation, three times proclaims the king ; and the grand marshal of the crown repeats the proclamation three times at the three gates of the camp.

Though the king was nominally the head of the Polish nation, his prerogative was extremely limited, and the power chiefly possessed by the diet and the senate. The diet of Poland was composed of the king, the senate, the bishops, and the deputies of every palatinate. It could only sit for six weeks, and at the expiration of that term must break up, though the most important business remain undecided. Not only unanimity of voices was necessary to pass any bill and constitute a decree of the diet, but every bill must likewise be assented to unanimously, or none can take effect. Thus if out of 20 bills one should have happened to be opposed by a single voice, called liberum veto, all the rest were thrown out, and the diet met, deliberated, and debated for six weeks to no purpose.

The senate was composed of the bishops, palatines, castellans, and ten officers of state, who derived a right from their dignities of setting in that assembly ; in all amounting to 144 members, who are styled senators of the kingdom, or counsellors of the state, and have the title of excellency, a dignity supported by no pension or emolument necessarily annexed. The senate presided over the laws, was the guardian of liberty, the

judge of right, and the protector of justice and equity. All the members, except the bishops, who were senators ex officio, were nominated by the king, and they took an oath to the republic before they were permitted to enter upon their functions. Their honours continued for life; at the general diet they sat on the right and left of the sovereign, according to their dignity, without regard to seniority. They were the mediators between the monarch and the subject, and, in conjunction with the king, ratified all the laws passed by the nobility. As a senator was bound by oath to maintain the liberties of the republic, it was thought no disrespect to majesty that they reminded the prince of his duty. They were his counsellors, and this freedom of speech was an inseparable prerogative of their office.

Such was the constitution of Poland before it was new modelled by the partitioning powers. That it was a very bad constitution wants no proof; but these reformers did not improve it. For two centuries at least the Poles, with great propriety, denominated their government a republic, because the king was so extremely limited in his prerogative that he resembled more the chief of a commonwealth than a sovereign of a powerful monarchy. That prerogative already too confined to afford protection to the peasants groaning under the aristocratic tyranny of the nobles, was, after the partition treaty, still further restrained by the establishment of the permanent council, which was vested with the whole executive authority, leaving the sovereign nothing but the name. The permanent council consisted of 36 persons, elected by the diet out of the different orders of nobility; and though the king, when present, presided in it, he could not exert a single act of power but with the consent of the majority of persons, who might well be called his colleagues.

That the virtuous and accomplished Stanislaus should labour to extricate himself and the great body of the people from such unparalleled oppression, and that the more respectable part of the nation should wish to give to themselves and their posterity a better form of government, was surely very natural and very meritorious. The influence of the partitioning powers was indeed exerted to make the king contented with his situation. His revenues, which before did not exceed 100,000*l.* were now increased to three times that sum. The republic likewise agreed to pay his debts, amounting to upwards of 400,000*l.* It bestowed on him also, in hereditary possession, four starosties or governments of castles, with the districts belonging to them; and reimbursed him of the money he had laid out for the state. It was also agreed that the revenues of the republic should be enhanced to 33,000,000 florins (near 2,000,000*l.* sterling), and the army should consist of 30,000 men. Soon after the conclusion of the peace with Turkey, the empress of Russia also made the king a present of 250,000 rubles, as a compensation for that part of his dominions which fell into her hands.

These bribes, however, were not sufficient to blind the eyes of Stanislaus, or to cool the ardour of his patriotism. He laboured for posterity, and with such apparent success that, on the 3rd of May, 1791, a new constitution of the government of Poland was established by the king, together with the confederate states assembled in double number to represent the Polish nation. That this was a perfect constitution we

are far from thinking; but it was probably as perfect as the inveterate prejudices of the nobles would admit of. It deviated as little as possible from the old forms, and was drawn up in 11 articles respecting the government of the republic; to which were added 21 sections, regulating the dietines or primary assemblies of Poland.

Of this constitution the first article established the Roman Catholic faith with all its privileges and immunities as the dominant national religion; granting to all other people, of whatever persuasion, peace in matters of faith and the protection of government. The second article guaranteed to the nobility, or the equestrian order, all the privileges which it enjoyed under the kings of the house of Jagellon. The third and fourth articles granted to the free royal towns internal jurisdictions of their own; and exempted the peasants from slavery, declaring every man free as soon as he sets his foot on the territory of the republic. The fifth article, after declaring that in civil society all power should be derived from the will of the people, enacted that the government of the Polish nation should be composed of three distinct powers; the legislative in the states assembled; the executive in the king and the council of inspection; and the judicial power in the jurisdictions existing or to be established. The sixth article appointed that the senate should consist of bishops, palatines, castellans, and ministers under the precedency of the king, who should have but one vote, and the casting voice in case of parity, which he may give either personally or by a message to the house. The house of nuncios was to consist of deputies from the nobility, was first to consider and to consent to a bill before it was submitted to the senate. The majority of votes was to decide every thing, and the liberum veto was utterly abolished. The seventh article intrusted the executive power to the king and council of inspection. The crown was declared elective with regard to families, but hereditary while the family of the remaining monarch continued in existence. He was to have the power of pardoning the offenders, commanding the national forces, and appointing generals with the consent of the states.

Many of the corrupt nobles, perceiving that this constitution would curb their ambition, deprive them of the base means, which they had long enjoyed, of gratifying their avarice, by setting the crown to sale, and render it impossible for them to continue with impunity their tyrannical oppression of the peasants, protested against it, and withdrew from the confederates. This was nothing more than what might have been expected, or than what the king and his friends undoubtedly did expect. But the malcontents were not satisfied with a simple protest; they preferred their complaints to the empress of Russia; who, ready on all occasions and on the slightest pretence to invade Poland, poured her armies into the republic, and surrounding the king and the diet with ferocious soldiers, compelled them, by the most furious and indecent menaces, to undo their glorious labour, and to restore the constitution as settled after the partition treaty.

Of the progress of the Russians in this work of darkness our readers will be pleased with the following manly and indignant narrative, taken from a periodical work of acknowledged merit.

"It was on the 21st of April, 1792, that the diet received the first notification from the king of the inimical and unjust intentions of Russia. He informed them that without

the shadow of pretence, this avowed enemy of the rights of mankind had determined to invade the territory of the republic with an army of 60,000 men. This formidable banditti, commanded by generals Soltikow, Michelson, and Kosakowski, was afterwards to be supported by a corps of 20,000, and by the troops then acting in Moldavia, amounting to 70,000. The king, however, professed that he was not discouraged, and declared his readiness to put himself at the head of his national troops, and to terminate his existence in a glorious contest for the liberties of his country. Then, and not before, the diet decreed the organization of the army and its augmentation to 100,000. The king and council of inspection were invested with unlimited authority in every thing that regarded the defence of the kingdom. Magazines were ordered to be constructed when it was too late, and quarters to be provided for the army.

"The diet and the nation rose as one man to maintain their independence. All private animosities were obliterated, all private interests were sacrificed; the greatest encouragements were held forth to volunteers to enrol themselves under the national standard, and it was unanimously decreed by the diet that all private losses should be compensated out of the public treasury.

"On the 18th of May the Russian ambassador delivered a declaration which was worthy of such a cause. It was a tissue of falsehood and hypocrisy. It asserted that this wanton invasion, which was evidently against the sense of almost every individual Polander, was meant entirely for the good of the republic. It censured the precipitancy with which the new constitution was adopted, and ascribed the ready consent of the diet to the influence of the Warsaw mob. It represented the constitution as a violation of the principles on which the Polish republic was founded; complained of the licentiousness with which the sacred name of the empress was treated in some speeches of the members; and concluded by professing that on these accounts, and in behalf of the emigrant Poles, her imperial majesty had ordered her troops to enter the territories of the republic.

"At the moment this declaration was delivered to the diet, the Russian troops, accompanied by counts Potocki, Rzewnski, Branicki, and a few Polish apostates, appeared upon the frontiers, and entered the territories of the republic in several columns before the close of the month. The spirit manifested by the nobility was truly honourable. Some of them delivered in their plate to the mint. Prince Radzvil engaged voluntarily to furnish 10,000 stand of arms, and another a train of artillery. The courage of the new and hastily embodied soldiers corresponded with the patriotism of their nobles. Prince Poniatowski, nephew to the king, was appointed commander in chief; and though his force was greatly inferior to the enemy, it must be confessed that he made a noble stand. On the 24th of May the enemy's Cossacks were repulsed and pursued by the patroles of the republic to the very entrenchments. On the 26th, about one o'clock, the piquets of the republic discovered a large body of Don Cossacks approaching the outposts; and a squadron of cavalry, commanded by lieutenant Kwasniewski, supported by lieutenant Golejowski with two squadrons more, in all about 300, marched out to meet them. They attacked the Cossacks with success, but pursued them with more valour than prudence to the side of a wood, where they found themselves

drawn into an ambuscade and surrounded by 2000 horse, two battalions of chasseurs, and six pieces of cannon. The intrepid Poles bravely fought their way through the Russian line, and killed upwards of 200 of the enemy. The Poles, in this engagement, lost 100 men and two officers, and two wounded and made prisoners. The remainder of the detachment reached their quarters in safety."

"Perhaps the history of man can scarcely furnish an instance of perfidy, meanness, and duplicity, equal to that which was manifested by Prussia on this occasion. By the treaty of defensive alliance, solemnly contracted between the republic of Poland and the king of Prussia, and ratified on the 23rd of of April, 1790, it was expressly stipulated, 'That the contracting parties should do all in their power to guarantee and preserve to each other, reciprocally, the whole of the territories which they respectively possess; that, in case of menace or invasion from any northern power, they shall assist each other with their whole force, if necessary:' and by the sixth article it is farther stipulated, 'That if any foreign power whatever should presume to interfere in the internal affairs of Poland, his Prussian majesty should consider this as a case falling within the meaning of the alliance, and should assist the republic according to the tenor of the fourth article; that is with his whole force. What then is the pretext for abandoning this treaty? It is that the empress of Russia has shewn a decided opposition to the order of things established in Poland on the 3rd of May, 1791, and is provoked by Poland presuming to put herself into a posture to defend it. It is known, however by the the most authentic documents, that nothing was effected on the 3rd of May, 1791, to which Prussia had not previously assented, and which she did not afterwards sanction: and that Prussia according to the assertion of her own king, did not intimate a single doubt respecting the revolution till one month, and according to the Prussian minister till six months after it had taken place: in short, to use the monarch's own words, as fully explanatory of his double politics, Not till the general tranquillity of Europe permitted him to explain himself. Instead, therefore, of assisting Poland, Prussia insultingly recommended to Poland to retrace her steps; in which case she said that she would be ready to attempt an accomodation in her favour. This attempt was never made, and probably never intended; for the empress pursued her measures."

"The duchy of Litnuania was the great scene of action in the beginning of the war; but the Russians had made little progress before the middle of the month of June. On the 16th of that month, general Judycki, who commanded a detachment of the Polish troops, between Mire and Swierzna, was attacked by the Russians; but, after a combat of some hours, he obliged them to retire with the loss of 500 men dead on the field. The general was desirous of profiting by this advantage, by pursuing the enemy, but was prevented by a most violent fall of rain. On the succeeding day the Russians rallied again to the attack; and it then fatally appeared the Poles were too young and undisciplined to contend, with an inferior force, against experienced troops and able generals. By a masterly manœuvre, the Russians contrived to surround their antagonists, at a moment when the Polish general supposed that he had obliged the enemy to retreat; and

though the field was contested with the utmost valour by the troops of the republic, they were at length compelled to give way and to retire towards Neisweisz."

"On the 14th another engagement took place near Lubar, on the banks of the river Sleuz, between a detachment of the Russian grand army and a party of Polish cavalry, dispatched by prince Joseph Poniatowski to intercept the enemy. The patriotic bravery of the Poles was victorious in this contest; but upon reconnoitering the force of the enemy, the prince found himself incapable of making a successful stand against such superior numbers. He therefore gave orders to strike the camp at Lubar, and commenced a precipitate retreat. During their march the Polish rear was harrassed by a body of 4000 Russians, till arriving at Boruskowee the wooden bridge unfortunately gave way under the weight of the cavalry. The enemy, in the mean time, brought their artillery to play upon the rear of the fugitives, who lost upward of 250 men, The Polish army next directed its course toward Ziehine, where, meeting on the 17th with a reinforcement from Zaslow, it halted to give battle to the enemy. The Russians were upwards of 17,000 strong, with 24 pieces of cannon, and the force of the republic much inferior. After a furious contest, from seven in the morning till five in the afternoon, the Russians were at length obliged to retreat, and leave the field of battle in possession of the patriots. The Russians were computed to have lost 4000 men in this engagement, and the Poles about 1100."

"Notwithstanding these exertions, the Poles were obliged gradually to retire before their numerous and disciplined enemies. Neisweiz, Wilna, Minsk, and several other places of less consequence fell into their hands one after another. On a truce being proposed to the Russian general, Kochowski, the proposal was haughtily rejected; while the desertion of vice-brigadier Rudnicki and some others, who preferred dishonour to personal danger, proclaimed a tottering cause. The progress of the armies of Catharine was marked with devastation and cruelty: while such was the aversion of the people, both to the cause and the manner of conducting it, that as they approached it the country all around became a wilderness, and scarcely a human being was to be seen."

"In the mean time a series of little defeats, to which the inexperience of the commanders and the intemperate valour of new raised troops appear to have greatly contibuted, served at once to distress and to dispirit these defenders of their country. Prince Poniatowski continued to retreat; and on the 17th of July, his rear being attacked by a very superior force, it suffered a considerable loss, though the skill and courage of general Kosciusko enabled him to make a most respectable defence. On the 18th a general engagement took place between the two armies. The Russian line extended opposite Dubienka, along the river Bog, as far as Opalin. The principal column, consisting of 14,000 men, was chiefly directed against the division of general Kosciusko, which consisted of 5000 men only. After a most vigorous resistance, in which the Russians lost upwards of 4000 men, and the troops of the republic only some hundreds, the latter were compelled to give way before the superior numbers of the enemy, and to retire further into the country.

" This unequal contest was at last prematurely terminated. The king, whose benevolent intentions were, perhaps, overpowered by his mental imbecility, and whose age and infirmities probably rendered him unequal to the difficulties and dangers which must attend a protracted war, instead of putting himself, according to his first resolve, at the head of his army, determined at once to surrender at discretion. On the 23rd of July he summoned a council of all the deputies at that moment in Warsaw. He laid before them the last dispatches from the empress, which insisted upon total and unreversed submission. He pointed out the danger of a dismemberment of the republic, should they delay to throw themselves upon the clemency of the empress, and to entreat her protection. He mentioned the fatal union of Austria and Prussia with Russia ; and the disgraceful supineness manifested by every other court in Europe."

" Four citizens, the intrepid and patriotic Malachowski, the princes Sapieha, Radzvil, and Soltan, vehemently protested against these dastardly proceedings ; and the following evening a company of gentlemen, from the different provinces, assembled for the same purpose. The assembly waited immediately on these four distinguished patriots, and returned them their acknowledgements for the spirit and firmness with which they had resisted the usurpations of despotism. The submission of the king to the designs of Russia was no sooner made known than Poland was bereft of all her best and most respectable citizens. Malachowski, as marshal of the diet, and prince Sapieha, grand marshal of Lithuania, entered strong protests on the journals of the diet against these hostile proceedings ; and declared solemnly that the diet, legally assembled in 1788, was not dissolved."

" On the 2nd of August a confederation was formed at Warsaw, of which the grand apostate Potocki was chosen marshal. The acts of this confederation were evidently the despotic dictates of Russia, end were calculated only to restore the antient abuses, and to place the country under the aggravated oppression of a foreign yoke."

" It is remarkable that at the very moment when Poland was surrendering its liberties to its despotic invaders, the generous sympathy of Great Britain was evinced by a liberal subscription, supported by all the most respectable characters in the nation, of every party and every sect, for the purpose of assisting the king and the republic to maintain their independence. Though the benevolent design was frustrated, the fact remains on record as a noble testimony of the spirit of Britons in the cause of freedom, of the indignation which fills every British heart at the commission of injustice, and of the liberality with which they are disposed to assist those who suffer from the oppression of tyrants."

" The nation, however, did not yet submit. General Kosciusko kept together a few retainers, whom he was soon enabled to augment to the number of an army, and seizing on the person of the king, waged a war against Russia, which was, however, soon terminated by the absolute subjection of Poland."

The war which the empress carried on with Sweden, from 1787 to 1790, did not terminate in a way equally flattering to her ambition. Gustavus III. had his army remained faithful, would, probably, in the first campaign, have penetrated to the metropolis of the Russian empire ; and when he was deserted by his army, and his counsels

distracted by new hostilities commenced against him by the Danes, the vigour and resources of his mind never forsook him. When the court of Copenhagen was compelled, by the means of England and Prussia, to withdraw its troops from the territories of Sweden, the king attacked Russia with such vigour, both by sea and land, displayed such address in retrieving his affairs, when apparently reduced to the last extremity, and renewed his attacks with such pertinacious courage, that the empress lowered the haughtiness of her tone, and was glad to treat with Gustavus as an equal and independent sovereign.

Of her wars with Turkey we shall treat more particularly in our history of the Ottoman empire. Catharine was meditating a free attack on this declining monarchy, with an expectation, it is asserted, of being crowned empress of the east at Constantinople; when, on the morning of the 9th of November, 1796, she was seized with what her principal physician judged a fit of apoplexy; and at 10 o'clock in the evening of the following day expired, in the 58th year of her age; leaving behind her the character of one of the greatest sovereigns that ever swayed a sceptre.

VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK VI.

EASTERN ASIA.

CHAPTER I.

TARTARY——*Eastern and Western.*

TARTARY is a very large country of Asia, situated between 57° and 160° of E. lon. reckoning from the west end of the isle of Ferro ; and between 37° and 55° of lat. It is bounded on the north by Siberia, or that part of Asia which belongs to Russia; on the west by the rivers Don, Wolga, and Karma, which separate it from Russia ; on the south by the Euxine and Caspian seas, Karazm, the two Bukharias, China, and Korea ; and on the east by the Oriental or Tartarian Ocean. It extends from east to west the space of 104 degrees in longitude, or 4145 geopraphical miles ; but its breadth is not proportionable, being not above 960 miles where broadest, and where narrowest 330.

This vast region is divided into two great parts ; the one called the Western, the other the Eastern Tartary.

Western Tartary, which is much more extensive than the Eastern, containing 139 degrees of longitude out of 161, is inhabited by a great number of nations or tribes of people, who are called Mungls or Mungals by themselves, and Monguls or Tartars indifferently by other nations.

The principal mountains or rather chains of mountains found in this part of Great Tartary may be divided into three classes : first those which run along the Northern borders of it ; and though perhaps not always contiguous or of the same denomination, go under the general name of Ulug Tag or Dag, that is the great mountain. Secondly, those which make the southern bounds, and are called Kichug Tag, or the lesser mountain. The third great chain is called Mount Altay, lying nearly in the middle between the Caspian sea and Eastern Tartary ; and extending between the other two in about the 110th degree of longitude.

The principal rivers of Western Tartary, besides the Dnieper, Don, and Wolga, are the Jaik or Yaik, and Yem ; both descending from the Ulag Tag, and falling into the Caspian sea on the north side ; the Ili or Khonghis, which rises out of the Khichug Tag on the borders of Little Bukharia, and runs north-west into the lake of Palkasi, which

is about 40 miles long and 30 broad: on this river the khan of the Eluths or Kalmucs usually resides: the river Irtish, Irtis, or Erohis, rises in Altay, and runs westward, inclining to the north, between two branches of it, into the lake Sysan, Sussan, or Isan, called also Honhotu-Nor, 90 miles long from west to east, and 40 broad; in lat. 47° 30', lon. 104°, from whence issuing again, it passes north-west through part of Siberia, and falls into the Oby, which has its source in the same mountain, about one degree to the north of that of the Irtish; and seven or eight degrees to the north-east rises the Kein or Jenisea, which runs westward for the space of seven or eight degrees, and then turning northward enters Siberia. The next river of note is the Selinga, which rises out of the late Kofogol, Hutuktu or Khutuktu, which is 70 miles long from south to north, and 20 broad, in lat. 52°, long. 118°, not far from the source of the Jenisea, and taking a sweep southward round by the east falls north-west of the city Selinghinskoy, which stands upon it. Into the Selinga runs the Orkon; the Tula rising eastward in mount Kentey. On the same mountain rise also two other rivers, viz. the Onon, called also by the Tartars Saghalian Ula or the Dragon river, and by the Russians Amur; which, running north-eastward and then taken a large sweep by the south, rolls along the bounds of Eastern Tartary, and falls into the Eastern Ocean. On its banks stand two cities; Nerchinskoy or Nepchew, a frontier of the Russians, almost due north of Pekin in China, and Saghalian Ula, possessed by the Chinese. Another large river is the Kerlon or Kerulon; which, running north-eastward, falls into the lake Kulon or Dalay, which is 60 miles long from south-west to north-east and 27 broad, in lat. 48° 30', lon. 135°, and issuing out again, under the name of Ergona or Argun, joins the Saghalian Ula, about 170 miles beyond Nerchinskoy. To these let us add the river Kalka, from whence, though small, the Kalka Moguls or Monguls take their name. It rises in the mountains separating Eastern from Western Tartary, and running eastward falls into the lake Puir, and then into that of Kulon before spoken of.

In the middle of a desert, on the banks of the river Irtish, is a remarkable piece of antiquity, called Sedemy Palaty or the seven palaces.

Above the Sedemy Palaty, towards the source of the Irtish, grows the best rhubarb in the world, without the least culture. In the plain of this country also, about eight or ten days journey from Tomsky in Siberia, are found many tombs and burying places of antient heroes, who, in all probability, fell in battle. These tombs are equally distinguished by the mounds of earth and stone raised over them. The Tartars say Tamerlane had many engagements in this country with the Kalmucs, whom he in vain endeavoured to conquer. Many persons go from Tomsky and other parts every summer to these graves, which they dig up, and find among the ashes of the dead considerable quantities of gold, silver, brass, and some precious stones, but particularly hilts of swords and armour. They find also ornaments of saddles and bridles, and other trappings for horses; and sometimes those of elephants. Whence it appears that when any general or person of distinction was interred, all his arms, his favourite horse, and servant were buried with him in the same grave; this custom prevails till this day among the Kalmucs and other Tartars, and seems to be of great antiquity. It appears from the

number of graves that many thousands must have fallen in those places; for the people have continued to dig for treasure many years and still find it unexhausted. They are indeed sometimes interrupted and robbed of all their booty by parties of Kalmucs, who abhor disturbing the ashes of the dead. Armed men on horseback, cast in brass, of no mean design and workmanship, with the figures of deer cast in pure gold have been dug out of these tombs. They once discovered an arched vault, where they found the remains of a man, with his bow, lance, and other arms lying on a silver table. On touching the body it fell to dust. The value of the table and arms was very considerable.

Great quantities of a kind of ivory, called by the natives mammon's-horn, are found in this country, and in Siberia on the banks of the Oby. They are commonly found on the banks of rivers that have been washed with floods. Some of them are very entire and fresh, like the best ivory in all respects, excepting only the colour, which is of a yellowish hue. In Siberia they make snuff-boxes, combs, and divers sorts of turnery-ware of them. Some have been found weighing above 100 pounds, English.

In describing the nations of Western Tartary, we begin with the Kalmucs, otherwise called Eluths. Their territory extends from the Caspian sea and the river Yaik or Ural in 72° of longitude, from Ferro to mount Altay in 110°, and from the 40 to the 52° of north lat.; whence it may be computed about 1920 miles in length, from west to east; and in breadth from north to south about 650 miles, where broadest. It is bounded on the north by Russia and Siberia, from which it is separated by a chain of mountains; on the east by mount Altey; on the south by the countries of Karazm and the two Bukharias, from which it is also separated partly by a chain of mountains, and partly by some rivers.

They are, in general, of a middle size, and it is even rare to see among them a person that is tall: the women especially are of a low stature, and have very agreeable features. Their limbs are neatly turned, and very few have any defects contracted in infancy. Their education being left solely to nature, procures for them a well formed body, and sound constitution. The only defect which is common among them is their having the thighs and legs somewhat bent. A fat person is hardly ever to be met with; the richest and most distinguished, though they lead a life sufficiently indolent, and enjoy abundance of every thing they desire, are never excessively corpulent. Their skin is pretty fair, especially when young; but it is the custom of the lower sort to allow their male children to go naked, both in the heat of the sun, and in the smoky atmosphere of their felt huts; the men too sleep naked, covered only with their drawers, and from these circumstances, they acquire that yellowish brown colour which characterises them. The women, on the contrary, have a very delicate complexion; among those of a certain rank, are found some with the most beautiful faces, the whiteness of which is set off by the fine black of their hair, and in this, as well as in their features, they perfectly resemble the figures in Chinese paintings.

The characteristic features of a Kalmuc or Mongul countenance are the following: the interior angle of the eye is placed obliquely downwards towards the nose, and is acute

and fleshy ; the eye-brows are black, narrow and much arched ; the nose is of a structure quite singular, being generally flat and broken towards the forehead ; the cheek-bone is high, the head and face very round, the eye is dark, the lips thick and fleshy, the chin short, and the teeth exceeding white, continuing so to old age ; the ears are of an enormous size, standing out from the head. These characters are more or less visible in each individual ; but the person who possesses them all in the highest degree is considered as the most beautifully formed.

Among all the Mongul nations the men have much less beard than in our European countries, and among the Tartars it appears much later. The Kalmucs have most of it ; and yet even with them the beard is very scanty and thin, and few have much hair on any other part of thier body.

People that lead a pastoral life enjoy the bodily senses in the greatest perfection. The Kalmucs find the subtility of their sense of smell very useful in their military expeditions, for by it they perceive at a distance the smoke of a fire, or the smell of a camp. There are many of them who can tell, by applying the nose to the hole of a fox or any other quadruped, if the animal be within or not. They hear at a great distance the trampling of horses, the noise of an enemy, of a flock of sheep, or even of strayed cattle ; they have only to stretch themselves on the ground, and to apply their ear close to the turf. But nothing is more astonishing than the acuteness of sight in most of the Kalmucs, and the extraordinary distance at which they often perceive very minute objects, such as the dust raised by cattle or horses, and this from places very little elevated ; in immense level deserts, though the particular inequalities of the surface, and vapours which, in fine weather, undulate over the soil in great heats, considerably increase the difficulty. They are also accustomed to trace the print of a foot in these deserts by the sight alone.

These people possess many good qualities, which give them a great superiority over the wandering Tartars. A certain natural sagacity, a social disposition, hospitality eagerness to oblige, fidelity to their chiefs, much curiosity, and a certain vivacity accompanied with good humour, which hardly ever forsakes even the most wretched among them, forms the fair side of their character. On the other hand, they are careless, superficial, and want true courage ; besides they are remarkable for credulity, distrust, and a natural inclination, authorized by custom, for drunkenness and debauchery, but especially for a great degree of cunning, which they too often practise. The disposition to indolence is common and natural, especially among the men, to all Asiatic nations, who lead a kind of life exmpt from subjection and devoid of activity ; but this is less to be perceived among the Kalmucs, on account of their natural vivacity, and does not prevent their endeavours to oblige. Those among them who exercise any little trade, or who are reduced, by poverty, to hire themselves to the Russians, either for labour or for fishing, are very assiduous and indefatigable. They sleep but little, going to rest late and rising with the sun. To sleep through the day, unless a person is drunk is considered by them as dishonourable. But their extreme dirtiness can neither be disguised nor justified, and proceeds much more from their education, from the slo-

veuness attached to the profession of a herdsman, and more from levity than laziness; for the Kalmuc women are indefatigable in whatever concerns domestic matters: and it is for this reason, as well as on the score of sensuality, than the Kirgisiens are eager to seize and carry them off whenever an opportunity presents itself.

With regard to the intellectual faculties of the Kalmucs, notwithstanding their want of instruction and information, they possess good natural parts, an excellent memory, and a strong desire to learn. They acquire the Russian language with great facility, and pronounce it well; in which last article they very much surpass the Chinese. It would be very easy to civilize them, if their petulence and manner of life did not render it impracticable.

Although the Kalmucs are generally of a sanguine and choleric temperament, they live more amicably together than one could expect in a people that lead so independent a life. They seldom come to blows, even over their cups, and their quarrels are hardly ever bloody. A murder very rarely happens, though their anger has something in it exceeding fierce. It would seem that the morality of their religion, though extremely idolatrous, has been able to moderate their natural disposition in this respect; for in consequence of their dogmas, with regard to the transmigration of souls, every wanton murder either of men or beasts is thought a deadly sin.

Nothing can be more prudent than that exercise of hospitality practised by wandering nations, it is of the greatest advantage to those among them who travel across their deserts, and each individual who practises it, may rely on reaping the benefit of it wherever he goes. A Kalmuc, provided with a horse, with arms and equipage, may ramble from one place to another, for three months together, without taking with him either money or provisions. Wherever he comes he finds either distant relations or friends, to whom he is attached by the ties of hospitality, from whom he meets with the kindest reception, and is entertained in the best manner their circumstances afford. Perhaps he lodges in the first unknown cottage he finds upon his road; and scarcely has he entered it, but his wants are supplied with the most affectionate cordiality. Every stranger, of whatever nation, never fails to be well received by a Kalmuc; and he may depend upon having his effects in the greatest security the moment he has put himself under the protection of his host: for to rob a guest, is considered by a Kalmuc as the most abominable of all crimes.

Their robberies are never committed upon their equals, and even the greater part of the rapine exercised in other tribes is founded on hatred or national quarrels; neither do they willingly attempt this by open force, but prefer the machinations of cunning which are so natural to them. It must also be confessed, that it is only those that live with princes and in camps where those hold their courts, or their priests that are most addicted to these practices; while the common people, satisfied with the pleasures of the pastoral life, spend their days in innocent simplicity, and never attack the property of another till forced by necessity, or led by their superiors, who show them the example.

The Kalmucs are very faithful to their lawful prince; they endure every sort of op-

pression, and yet are with difficulty induced to revolt; but if they belong to a prince who has not become so by right of succession, they very easily rebel. They honour old age. When young men travel with such as are older than themselves, they take upon them the whole care of the cattle, as well as of the feast. They are exceedingly prudent in matters that relate to their sovereign or their nation, or which are recommended to their direction by the priests, to whom they yield an unreserved obedience.

The moveable habitations of the Kalmucs are those felt huts, with a conical roof, in use among all the roving Asiatics. The truly ingenious invention of these tents was undoubtedly conceived in the eastern part of Asia, and most probable by the Mongul nations. As they can be entirely taken to pieces and folded in a small compass, they are very useful, and perfectly agree with the migratory life of these people, who are still ignorant of the use of carriages. The frame of these huts, and the felts they are covered with, though made as light as possible, yet are a sufficient load for a camel or two oxen. But the capacity of these huts, their warmth in winter, their strength in resisting tempests, and excluding rain, abundantly compensate for this inconvenience. The wood endures many years, and though the felt begins to break in holes the second year, the common people, who do not consider it as disgraceful to have them mended and patched, make them serve a good deal longer. The huts are in general use from the prince down to the meanest Kalmuc, differing only in the size and the embellishments within. In winter they are warm, even when heated with the dried excrements of their cattle, to which they are often obliged to have recourse for want of other combustibles, in many places of the desert which are destitute of wood. In summer they remove the felt to enjoy the fresh air.

The master of the tent has his bed placed opposite to the door, behind the fire-place. The bedsteads are low and made of wood. The rich adorn their beds with curtains, and spread carpets of felt upon the ground. When a Kalmuc possesses an idol, he places it near the head of his bed, and sets before it several small consecrated cups full of water, milk, or other food. Before this sort of altar he fixes in the ground the trunk of a tree, on which he places a large iron bason, destined to receive the libations of all the drink he makes use of in a day. On festivals the idol is decorated, the lamps are lighted, and perfumes burnt before it.

The riches of the Kalmucs, and their whole means of subsistence depend on their flocks, which many of them reckon by hundreds, and even by thousands. A man is thought capable of living on his possessions when he is master of ten cows with a bull, or eight mares with a stallion. The animals they have in greatest abundance are horses, horned cattle, and sheep. Camels, which require time and pains to rear, cannot multiply much with them; they are besides too delicate, and it is only the rich or the priests who possess any of them. Their horses are but small, too weak for the draught, and too wild; but they do not yield to any in swiftness, and support with ease the weight of a man. They may be made to gallop for several hours successively without any injury; and when necessity requires it, they can pass twice 24 hours without drinking. They have a little hoof, but very hard; and they may be used at all times without being shod.

In this country the horses live and pepetuate themselves without any assistance from man. The Kalmucs castrate the greater part of their male foals, and at the same time slit their nostrils, that they may breathe more freely while they run. The stallions are never separated from the mares, that there may be always plenty of milk. The stallions are leaders of the herd, and often wander at a distance into the deserts at the head of their females, defending them from the wolves with the greatest intrepidity. The Kalmucs have the art of breaking a young horse without using a bridle. They seize him before he is two years old by means of a noose fixed to the end of a long pole; an instrument they use in taking their riding horses which feed in the midst of the herd. They put no saddle at first on the colt they mean to break, but tie a strait girth round his body; by the help of which the horseman can keep himself firm. When he is mounted the horse is abandoned to his fury; they allow him to run and agitate himself as much as he pleases, on the open plain, till he is fatigued. The horseman is solicitous only to keep himself fast, and when the horse begins to abate of his impetuosity, he urges him again with the whip, till his strength is almost gone, he is then saddled and bridled, and made to go, for some time, at a moderate pace: after which he is entirely tamed.

The horned cattle of the Kalmucs are of a beautiful shape They keep more bulls than are necessary for the cows, and employ a great number of them as beasts of burden for carrying their houses and their other furniture from place to place. They think a bull equal to 50 cows. These and the mares give milk only while they suckle their calves or their foals, which are accordingly kept close to the tents during the day, and only suffered to suck freely during the night; a practice which the Kalmucs pretend makes their cattle stronger and more durable. They generally milk their mares three or four times a day, and sometimes every two hours when the herbage is abundant. The cows are milked but twice a day.

The Kalmuc sheep are of the same species with those found in all Great Tartary, having large tails, like a bag, exceedingly fat, and which furnish a suet as soft as butter. They have also large pendant ears, and their head is much arched. Their wool is coarse, and the ewes seldom have horns. One ram is sufficient for 100 ewes. Little use is made of the milk. The wool is fit for nothing but to make felt for the tents. A great many sheep die during the winter, and a greater number still of the early lambs; the skins of which are wrought into those fine furs so much esteemed in Russia and foreign parts.

Camels belong only to the rich; for they are very dear, multiply very slowly, and are subject to many diseases. The deserts of the Wolga and almost all those of the southern parts of Great Tartary furnish excellent pasture for these animals: but they require not only much attention in winter, but they must be continually under the eye of the herdsman; for, notwithstanding the advantage of their stature, they are of all animals less able to defend themselves against the wolf. They are guarded with much care against the violence of the cold and the winds of winter; nevertheless many of them die of a consumption, accompanied with a diarrhœa, occasioned, most probably, by the moisture of their pasture and of the season. This disease, for which no remedy has been

found, make them languish for six months or more. They are in general so delicate that a slight wound or blow often proves fatal to them. Besides no animal is so much tormented with insects; and they often die in summer of those they swallow in eating the leaves of the oak and of the birch. The melæ prascaraboeus, which covers all the plants in many of the places where they feed, is generally fatal to them. In spring, when they cast their hair, and which falls at once from every part of the body, they are exposed to the bite of the spider-scorpion, an animal very common in southern countries. The wound inflicted by this insect on the skin, thus naked, is so venemous that the camel dies of it in less than eight days, sometimes in three. In winter, and especially after rutting-time, which happens at the end of March, the camels become lean and weak; the bunch upon their back grows flabby and hangs down upon the side, nor does it recover its plumpness till summer.

The Kalmucs are supplied by their flocks with milk, cheese, butter, and flesh, which are the principal articles of their food. With regard to the last they are so little squeamish that they not only eat the flesh of their own diseased cattle, but that of almost every sort of wild beasts, and the poor will even feed upon carrion. They eat, however, the roots and stalks of many plants; such as the bulbous rooted chervil, dandelion, &c. which they use both boiled and raw.

Their ordinary drink is the milk of mares or cows; but the former is, for several reasons, preferred. This, when fresh, has indeed a very disagreeable taste of garlic; but besides that it is much thinner than the cow-milk, it takes, as it grows sour, a very agreeable vinous flavour; it yields neither cream nor curd, but furnishes a very wholesome refreshing beverage, which sensibly inebriates when drunk to excess. They never make use of new milk, and still less of milk or of water that have not been boiled. Their milk is boiled as soon as it is taken from the animal; when it is cold it is poured into a large leathern bag, in which there remains as much of the old milk as is sufficient to turn the new quantity sour, for they never think of cleansing those bags; and as the inside is lined with a crust, deposited by the caseous part of the milk and other impurities, it is easy to imagine that a nauseous smell must exhale from them. But this is precisely the circumstance in which the secret consists of communicating to the milk a vinous fermentation.

The Kalmucs are exellent horsemen. Their arms are lances, bows and arrows, poniards, and crooked sabres; though the rich have fire-arms. They wear, when at war, coats of mail, which cost 50 horses, and the helmets are gilded at top. They are fond of falconry, and hunting of all sorts is their principal amusement. Their passion for play, especially with those who play cards, is carried to as great excess among them as in any other nation.

The greater part of their time is spent in diversions; and however miserable their manner of life may seem to us, they are perfectly happy with it. They cannot endure for any time the air of a close room; and they think our custom of living in houses insupportable. The greatest part of them, notwithstanding the apparent unhealthiness of their waay of life, arrive at a vigorous old age; their diseases are never frequent or

dangerous. Men of 80 or 100 years old are not uncommon : and at that age they can still very well endure the exercise of riding. Simple food, the free air which they constantly breathe, a hardy, vigorous constitution, continual exercise without much labour, and a mind free from care are the natural causes of their health and longevity.

The most considerable tribes in Western Tartary, next to the Kalmucs, are the Kalkas and Mungls or Mongals properly so called. The country of the Kalkas extends eastward from mount Altay to the source of the river Kalka, whence they derive their name, in the borders of Eastern Tartary, and 139° of lon. The territories of the Mungls or Mongalia lie to the south of those of Kalkas, between them and the great wall of China, to which empire both nations are subject. Besides these tribes, who are idolaters, of the religion of the Delay Lama, there are others who possess that part of Western Tartary called Turkestan, the original country of the Turks, and Turkmans, situated to the north of Great Bukharia and Karazm, between those countries and the dominions of the Eluths. Under Western Tartary also is comprehended Tibet, Thibet, or Tobbut, subject to the Delay Lama, or great high priest of the Pagan Tartars and Chinese.

In all the vast region of Western Tartary there are but few towns, most of the inhabitants living under tents, especially in summer, and moving from place to place with their flocks and herds. They generally encamp near some river, for the convenience of water.

The air of this country is temperate, wholesome, and pleasant, being equally removed from the extremes of heat and cold. As to the soil, though there are many mountains, lakes, and deserts in it, yet the banks of the rivers and the plains, some of which are of great extent, are exceedingly fertile. The mountains, woods, and deserts abound with venison, game, and wild fowl ; and the rivers and lakes both with fish and fowl. In particular here are wild mules, horses, and dromedaries, wild boars, several kinds of deer, a species of goats with yellow hair, squirrels, foxes, an animal called hantehan, resembling an elk, another called chulon or chilison, that seems to be a sort of lynx, and a creature called Tael-pe, as small as an ermine, of whose skins the Chinese make mantles to keep out the cold. Among other birds of extraordinary beauty bred in this country there is one called the shonkar, which is all over white, except the beak, wings, and tail, which are of a very fine red. Notwithstanding the soil in many parts of Tartary is so luxuriant, yet, we are told, it does not produce a single wood of tall trees of any kind whatever, excepting in some few places towards the frontiers ; all the wood that is found in the heart of the country consisting of shrubs, which never exceed the height of a pike, and even these are rare.

In the country of Mongals the grass is very thick and rank, and would, with little labour, make excellent hay. This grass is often set on fire by the Mongals in the spring, during high winds. At such time it burns most furiously, running like wild-fire, and spreading its flames to the distance of perhaps 10 or 20 miles, till its progress is interrupted by some river or barren hill. The rapidity of those flames, their smoke, and crackling noise cannot easily be conceived by those who have not seen them. When any person finds himself to the leeward of them, the only method by which he can save

himself from their fury is immediately to kindle the grass where he stands, and follow his own fire. For this purpose every person is provided with steel, flints, and tinder. The reason why the Monguls set fire to the grass is to procure early pasture for their cattle. The ashes left upon the ground sink into the earth at the melting of the snow, and prove an excellent manure, so that the grass, in the spring, rises on the lands which have been prepared in this manner as thick as a field of wheat. Caravans of travellers with merchandize, but especially armies, never encamp upon this rank grass; and there are several instances of considerable bodies of men being put in confusion, and even defeated by the enemy's setting fire to the grass.

Eastern Tartary, according to the limits usually assigned it by historians and geographers, is bounded to the west by Western Tartary, or that part possessed by the proper Mungls and Kalkas; on the north by Siberia; on the east by that part of the Oriental Ocean called the Tartarian Sea; and on the south by the same sea, the kingdom of Korea, and the Yellow Sea, which separates it from China. It is situated between the 127° and 160° of longitude, being about 900 miles long from north to south, and near as many in breadth from east to west, yet but thinly peopled. This last region is at present divided into three governments, all subject to the Chinese; viz. Shing-yang or Mugden, Kurin-Ula, and Tsitsikar.

The government of Shing-yang, containing all the antient Lyau-tong or Quan-tong, is bounded on the south by the great wall of China and the Yellow Sea; on the east, north, and west it is inclosed by a wooden palisade, seven or eight feet high, fitter to mark its bounds and keep out petty robbers than to oppose an army.

The lands of this province are, for the general, very fertile, producing abundance of wheat, millet, roots, and cotton. They also afford pasture to a great number of sheep and oxen, which are rarely seen in any of the provinces of China. They have indeed but little rice; yet to make amends, there is plenty of apples, pears, hazel-nuts, filberts, and chesnuts, even in the forest. The eastern part, which borders on the antient country of the Manchews and kingdom of Korea, is full of deserts and bogs. The principal cities of this government are Shing-yang or Mugden, Fong-wang ching, Inden, Ichew, and Kingchew. This country was the original seat of the Tartar tribe of the Manchews, who have been masters of China above 100 years.

The government of Kerin ula hotum is bounded westward by the palisade of Lyau-tong; on the east by the Eastern Ocean; southward by the kingdom of Korea; and on the north by the great river Saghalian; so that it extends no fewer than 12 degrees, and almost 20 degrees in longitude, being 750s mile in length and 600 in breadth.

This vast country abounds in millet and oats, with a sort of grain unknown in Europe, called by the Chinese may-sem-mix, as being of a middle kind between wheat and rice. It is wholesome and much used in these cold regions. There is but little wheat or rice here; but whether that is the fault of the soil or the inhabitants we cannot assert. The cold begins much sooner in these parts than at Paris, whose latitude is near 50 degrees. The forests, which are very thick and large the nearer you advance to the Eastern Ocean, contribute not a little to bring it on and keep it up. The banks of the river

here in summer are enamelled with a variety of flowers common in Europe, excepting the yellow lilies, which are of a most lively colour, in height and shape exactly resembling our white lilies, but are of a much weaker scent. But the plant which is most esteemed and draws a great number of herbalists into these deserts is the gin-seng, called by the Manchews orhota, that is the chief or queen of plants. It is highly valued for its virtues in curing several diseases, and all decays of strength proceeding from excessive labour of body or mind For this reason it has always been the principal riches of Eastern Tartary; what is found in the north of Korea being consumed in that kingdom.

Formerly the Chinese used to get into the gin-seng country, among the mandarins and soldiers continually passing; but in 1700 the emperor Kang-hi, that his Manchews might reap this advantage, ordered 10,000 soldiers, encamped without the great wall, to go and gather it: on condition that each should give him two ounces of the best, and take an equal weight of fine silver for the remainder: by which means the emperor got in that year 20,000 pounds of it for less than one fourth of the price it bears at Pekin. The root is the only part that is used medicinally. Its valour is enhanced by its age, for the largest and firmest are the best. This country abounds also in fine sables, grey ermines, and black foxes.

One of the tribes of Tartars inhabiting this country are called Yu-pi Tartars, whose manner of life is somewhat extraordinary. All the summer they spend in fishing; one part of what they catch is laid up to make oil for their lamps; another serves for their daily food; and the rest, which they dry in the sun, without salting, for they have no salt, is laid up for their winter's provisions; whereof both men and cattle eat when the rivers are frozen. Notwithstanding this diet a great deal of strength and vigour appears in most of these poor people. Their raiment consists of the skins of fish, which, after dressing and dying of three or four colours, they shape and sew in so delicate a manner that one would imagine they made use of silk, till, on ripping a stitch or two, you perceive an exceeding fine thong, cut out of a very thin skin. When the rivers are frozen their sledges are drawn by dogs, trained up for the purpose, and highly valued.

Although the Manchew language is as much used at the court of Pekin as the Chinese, and all public acts are drawn up in one as well as the other, yet it began to decline, and would probably have been lost, had not the Tartars taken great pains to preserve it, by translating Chinese books, and compiling dictionaries under the emperor's patronage. Their language is singular in this respect, that the verb differs as often as the substantive governed by it; or, which is the same thing, to every different substantive they use a different verb; as, for instance, when they would say make a verse, a picture, a statue; for the repetion of the same verb in discourse might be excusable, it is, with them, unpardonable in writing, as making a monstrous grating to their ears.

Another singularity of their language is the copiousness of it; for instance, besides names for each species of animals, they have words to express their several ages and qualities. Judagon is the general name for a dog; but tayha signifies a dog who has

very long and thick hair both on his ears and tail, and yolo a dog with a long thick muzzle and tail, large ears, and hanging lips. The horse is more serviceable to them, has 20 times more names than the dog; almost every motion of him giving an occasion to a different name. Where they could get that astonishing multitude of names and terms is not easy to determine.

This country is but thinly peopled, and contains only four cities, namely Kirinula-hotun or Khotun, Pedue or Petune, Ninguta, and Patay-ula-hotun, which are very ill built, and encompassed with no better than mud-walls. The first stands on the river Songari, and is the residence of the Manchew general, who has all the privileges of a viceroy, and commands the mandarines as well as the troops. Ninguta, which the family now reigning in China considers as its antient patrimony, is situated on the Hurkapari, which runs northward into the Songari. Its name is compounded of two Tartarian words, which signify seven chiefs, to express the right of the Manchew kingdom, which was first established by seven brothers of the late emperor, Kanghis's great grandfather's father.

The tribe of the Manchews who inhabit Eastern Tartary, and are lords of all the other Eastern inhabitants thereof, are called by the Russians Bogdoy, and the emperor of China Bogdoy Khan and Amulon Bogdoy Khan.

The third government into which Eastern Tartary is divided is that of Tsitsikar. It is 740 miles long and 600 broad; and belongs partly to China and partly to Russia. The people are great hunters, dexterous archers, and pay their tribute in sable skins; each family being assessed two or three or more a year, according to the number of able persons.

This province is inhabited chiefly by three sorts of Tartars, the Manchews, the Solons, and Taguri; of whom the first are masters. The Taguri are a large robust people, but not very numerous. They live in houses or huts, and cultivate barley, oats, and millet. Their cattle are principally horses, dromedaries, oxen, cows, and sheep. They make much use of their oxen to ride on.

The Solons also are a brave robust people. Their dress is a short jacket of wolves' skins, with a cap of the same; and they have long cloaks, made of fox or tiger's skins, to defend them against the cold, especially of the night. They hang their bows at their backs. Their women ride on horseback, drive the plough, hunt stags and other game.

Besides the country towns or villages there are three cities in the province of Tsitsikar, namely Tsitsikar, Merghen, and Saghalian-ula-hotun. The garrison of Tsitsikar, the capital, consists of Manchews, but the inhabitants are mostly Chinese. According to their own account they are all shamanians or conjurors, and invoke the devil with frightful cries. They give their dead two burials; first leaving a hole at the top of the grave, where the relations daily bring victuals, which they convey to the mouth of the deceased with a spoon, and leave drink in small tin cups standing round the grave. This ceremony holds for several weeks, after which they bury the body deeper in the ground.

Several rivers in this country produce pearls, which, though much cried up by the Tartars, would be little valued by Europeans, on account of their defects in shape and colour.

The kingdoms or countries of Corea, Lyau-tong, and Nyu-che, forming a part of Katay, Kitay, or Cathay, and by some included under Eastern Tartary, are more properly provinces of China, though they lie without the great wall.

CHAPTER II.

JAPAN.

JAPAN is a general name for a great number of islands lying between the eastern coast of Asia, and the western one of America, and which altogether form a large and potent empire. They extend from the 30° to the 41° of lat. and from the 130 to the 147° of east lon.

Were South and North Britain divided by an arm of the sea, Japan might be most aptly compared to England, Scotland, and Ireland, with their respective smaller islands, peninsulas, bays, channels, &c. all under the same monarch.

The Europeans call the empire Japan; but the inhabitants Niphon, from the greatest island belonging to it; and the Chinese Ciphon, probably on account of its eastern situation; these names signifying in both languages the Basis or Foundation of the Sun. It was first discovered by the Portuguese, about the year of Christ 1542.

Most of the islands which compose it are surrounded with such high craggy mountains, and such shallow and boisterous seas, that sailing about them is extremely dangerous; and the creeks and bays are choaked up with such rocks, shelves, and sands, that it looks as if Providence had designed it to be a kind of little world by itself. These seas have likewise many dangerous whirlpools, which are very difficult to pass at low water, and will suck in and swallow up the largest vessels, and all that come within the reach of their vortex, dashing them against the rocks at the bottom; insomuch that some of them are never seen again, and others thrown upon the surface at some miles distance. Some of these whirlpools also make a noise terrible to hear.

As these islands lie in the fifth and sixth climates, they would be much hotter in summer than in England, were not the heats refreshed by the winds which continually blow from the sea around them, and to which they are much exposed by the height of their situation: this circumstance, however, not only renders their winters excessive cold, but the seasons more inconstant. They have great falls of snow in winter, which are commonly followed by hard frost. The rains in summer are very violent, especially in the months of June and July, which, on that account, are called sat suki, or water months. The country also is much subject to dreadful thunderings and lightnings, as well as storms and hurricanes which frequently do a great deal of damage.

The soil, though naturally barren, by the industry of the inhabitants, not only supplies them with every necessary of life, but also furnishes other countries with them; producing, besides corn, the finest and whitest rice, and other grains, with a great variety of fruits, and vast numbers of cattle of all sorts. Besides rice and a sort of wheat and barley, with two sorts of beans, they have Indian wheat, millet, and several other kinds in great abundance. Their seas, lakes, and rivers, abound with fish; and their mountains, woods, and forests, are well stocked with horses, elephants, deer, oxen, buffaloes, sheep,

hogs, and other useful animals. Some of their mountains also are enriched with mines of gold, silver, and copper, and various minerals and fossils; whilst others abound with several sorts of marble and precious stones. Of these mountains some may be ranked among the natural rarities of this country; one in particular, in the great island of Niphon, is of such prodigious height, as to be easily seen forty leagues off at sea, though its distance from the shore is about eighteen. Some authors think it exceeds the famous peak at Teneriffe, but it may rather be called a cluster or group of mountains, among which are no less than eight dreadful volcanoes, burning with incredible fury, and often laying waste the country round about them; but to make some amends, they afford great variety of medicinal waters of different degrees of heat, one of these, mentioned by Varenius is said to be as hot as burning oil, and to scorch and consume every thing thrown into it

The many brooks and rivers that have their source among the mountains, form a great number of delightful cascades, as well as some dreadful cataracts. Among the great variety of trees in the forests here, the cedars exceed all of that kind through India for straightness, height, and beauty. They abound in most of the islands, especially the largest.

Their seas, besides fish, furnish them with great quantities of red and white coral, some pearls of great value, besides a variety of sea plants and shells; which last are not inferior to those that are brought from Amboyna, the Moluccas, and other easterly islands.

The vast quantity of sulphur with which most of the Japan islands abound, makes them subject to frequent and dreadful earthquakes. The inhabitants are so accustomed to them that they are scarcely alarmed at any, unless they chance to be very terrible indeed, and lay whole towns in ruins, which very often proves the case. On these occasions they have recourse to extraordinary sacrifices and acts of worship to their deities or demons, according to the different notions of each sect, and sometimes even proceed to offer human victims: but in this case they only take some of the vilest and most abandoned fellows they can meet with, because they are only sacrificed to the malevolent deities

The religion throughout Japan, it is well known is Pagan, split into several sects, who live together in the greatest harmony. Every sect has its own temples and priests. The spiritual emperor, the Dairi, is the chief of their religion. They acknowledge and honour a supreme being. The author of this relation (Dr. Thunberg) saw two temples of the god of gods, of a majestic height. The idol that represented this god was of gilded wood, and of so prodigious a size, that upon his hands six persons might sit in the Japanese fashion; his shoulders were five toises broad. In the other temple the infinite power of this god was represented by little gods, to the number of 33,333, all standing round the great idol that represented god. The priests, who are numerous in every temple, have nothing to do but to clean the pavement, light the lamps, and dress the idol with flowers. The temples are open to every body, even to the Hollanders; and in case

they are in want of lodging in the suburbs, when they go to the court of Jedo, they are entertained with hospitality in these temples.

Christianity, if popery deserves that name, had once made a considerable progress in that country, in consequence of a mission conducted by the Portuguese and Spanish Jesuits; amongst whom the famous saint Francis Xavier was employed, but soon relinquished the service. There were also some Franciscan friars of Spain, engaged at last. The Jesuits and friars were supplied from Goa Macao, and the Manilhas. At first the undertaking proceeded with the most rapid success, but ended at last in the most tragical manner; all owing to the pride and haughtiness, the misconduct, rapacity, and senseless extravagant conspiracy of the fathers against the state. This folly and madness produced a persecution of 40 years duration, terminated by a most horrible and bloody massacre, not to be paralleled in history. After this the Portuguese, as likewise the Christian religion, were totally expelled the country, and the most effectual means taken for preventing their return. The natives are, for this purpose, prohibited from going out of the country; and all foreigners are excluded from an open and free trade; for as to the Dutch and Chinese, under which last name some other eastern nations go thither, they are shut up whilst they remain there, and a most strict watch is set upon them, insomuch that they are no better than prisoners; and the Dutch, it is said, to obtain a privilege even so far, declared themselves to be no Christians but Dutchmen. This calumny, however, Dr. Kempfer has endeavoured to wipe off, but not altogether to satisfaction.

The inhabitants of Japan are well grown, agile, and active, and at the same time stout limbed, though they do not equal in strength the northern inhabitants of Europe. The colour of the face is commonly yellow, which sometimes varies to brown and sometimes to white. The inferior sort, who, during their work in summer, have often the upper parts of the body naked, are sun-burnt and browner; women of distinction, who never go uncovered into the open air, are perfectly white.

The national character consists in intelligence and prudence, frankness, obedience, and politeness, good-nature, and civility, curiosity, industry, and dexterity, economy and sobriety, hardiness, cleanliness, justice, and uprightness, honesty and fidelity; in being also mistrustful, superstitious, haughty, resentful, brave, and invincible.

In all its transactions the nation shows great intelligence, and can by no means be numbered among the savage and uncivilized, but rather is to be placed among the polished. The present mode of government, admirable skill in agriculture, sparing mode of life, way of trading with foreigners, manufactures, &c. afford convincing proofs of their cunning, firmness, and intrepid courage. Here there are no appearances of that vanity so common among the Asiatics and Africans of adorning themselves with shells, glass beads, and polished metal plates, neither are they fond of the useless European ornaments of gold and silver, lace, jewels, &c.; But are careful to provide themselves from the productions of their country, with neat clothes, well tasted food, and good weapons.

The dress of the Japanese deserves, more than that of any other people, the name of national; since they are not only different from that of all other men, but are also of the same form in all ranks, from the monarch to his meanest subject, as well as in both sexes; and what exceeds all credibility, they have not been altered for at least 2444 years. They universally consist of night-gowns, made long and wide, of which several are worn at once by all ranks and all ages; the more distinguished and the rich have them of the finest silk; the poorer sort of cotton. Those of the women reach down to the ground, and sometimes have a train; in the men they reach down to the heels; travellers, soldiers, and labourers either tuck them up or wear them only down to their knees. The habit of the men is generally of one colour; the women have theirs variegated, and frequently with flowers of gold interwoven. In summer they are either without lining or have but a thin one; in winter they are stuffed to a great thickness with cotton or silk. The men seldom wear a great number, but the women 30, 50, or more, all so thin that they scarce together amount to five pounds. The undermost serves for a shift, and is therefore either white or blue, and for the most part thin and transparent. All these gowns are fastened round the waist with a belt, which, in the men, are about a hand's breadth, in the women about a foot; of such a length that they go twice round the waist, and afterwards are tied in a knot with many ends and bows. The knot, particularly among the fair sex, is very conspicuous, and immediately informs the spectator whether they are married or not. The unmarried have it behind on their back; the married before. In this belt the men fix their sabres, fans, pipe, tobacco, and medicine boxes. To the neck the gowns are always cut round, without a collar; they therefore leave the neck bare; nor is it covered with cravat, cloth, or any thing else. The sleeves are always ill-made, and out of all proportion wide; at the opening before they are half sewed up, so that they form a sack, in which the hands can be put in cold weather; they also serve for a pocket. Girls in particular have their sleeves so long that they reach down to the ground. Such is the simplicity of their habit that they are soon dressed; and to undress they have only to open their girdle and draw in their arms.

As the gowns from their length keep the thighs and legs warm, there is no occasion for stockings; nor do they use them in all the empire. Among poorer persons on a journey, and among soldiers who have not such long gowns, one sees buskins of cotton. Shoes, or more properly speaking slippers, are, of all that is worn by the Japanese, the simplest, the meanest, and the most miserable; though in general use among high and low, rich and poor. They are made of interwoven rice straw; and sometimes, for persons of distinction, of reeds split very thin. They consist only of a sole, without upper leathers or quarters. Before these passes over transversely a bow of linen, of a finger's breadth; from the point of the shoe to this bow goes a thin round band, which, running within the great toe, serves to keep the shoe fixed to the foot. The shoe, being without quarters, slides during walking like a slipper. Travellers have three bands of twisted straw, by which they fasten the shoe to the foot and leg to prevent its falling off. The Japanese never enter their houses with shoes, but put them off in the entrance. This precaution is taken for the sake of their neat carpets. During the time the Dutch

reside in Japan, as they have sometimes occasion to pay the natives visits in their houses, and as they have their own apartment at the factory covered with the same sort of carpets, they do not wear European shoes, but have, in their stead, red, green, or black slippers, which can easily be put off at entering in.

The way of dressing the hair is not less peculiar to these people, and less universally prevalent among them than the use of the long gowns. The men shave their head from the forehead to the neck; and the hair remaining on their temples and in the nape is well besmeared with oil, turned upwards, and then tied with a white paper thread, which is wrapped round several times. The ends of hair beyond the head are cut cross ways, about a finger's length being left. This part, after being pasted together with oil, is bent in such a manner that the point is brought to the crown of the head; in which situation it is fixed by passing the same thread round it once. Women, except such as happen to be separated from their husbands, shave no part of their head.

The head is never covered with hat or bonnet in winter or in summer, except when they are on a journey; and then they use a conical hat, made of a sort of grass, and fixed with a ribband. Some travelling women, who are met with on the roads, have a bonnet like a shaving bason inverted on the head, which is made of cloth in which gold is interwoven. On other occasions their naked heads are preserved both from rain and sun by umbrellas. Travellers, moreover, have a sort of riding coat, made of thick paper oiled. They are worn by the upper servants of princes and the suite of other travellers. Dr. Thunberg and his fellow-travellers, during their journey to court, were obliged to provide such for their attendants when they passed through the place where they were made.

A Japanese always has his arms painted on one or more of his garments, especially on the long and short gowns, on the sleeves or between the shoulders; so that nobody can steal them; which otherwise might easily happen in a country where the clothes are so much alike in stuff, shape, and size.

The weapons of the Japanese consist of a bow and arrows, sabre, holbert, and musket. The bows are very large and arrows long as in China. When the bows are to be bent and discharged, the troops always rest on one knee, which hinders them making a speedy discharge. In the spring the troops assemble to practise shooting at a mark. Muskets are not general; Dr. Thunberg only saw them in the hands of persons of distinction, in a separate and elevated part of the audience-room. The barrel is of the common length; but the stock is very short, and there is a match in the lock. The sabre is their principal and best weapon, which is universally worn, except by the peasants. They are commonly a yard long, a little crooked, and thick in the back. The blades are of an incomparable goodness, and the old ones are in very high esteem. They are far superior to the Spanish blades so celebrated in Europe. A tolerably thick nail is easily cut in two, without any damage to the edge; and a man, according to the account of the Japanese, may be cleft asunder. A separate sash is never used, but the sword is stuck in the belt of the left side, with the edge upwards, which, to an European,

appears ridiculous. All persons in office wear two such sabres, one of their own and the other the sword of office as it is called ; the latter is always the longer. Both are worn in the belt on the same side, and so disposed as to cross each other. When they are sitting they have their sword of office laid on one side or before them.

The sciences are very far from having arrived at the same height in Japan as in Europe ; the history of the country is notwithstanding more authentic perhaps than that of any other country ; and it is studied without distinction by all. Agriculture, which is considered as the art most necessary and most conducive to the support and prosperity of the kingdom, is no where in the world brought to such perfection as here : where neither civil nor foreign war, nor emigration diminish population ; and where a thought is not entertained either of getting possession of other countries or to import the useless and often hurtful productions of foreign lands ; but where the utmost care is taken that no turf lies uncultivated, and no produce of the earth lies unemployed. Astronomy is pursued and respected ; but the natives are unable, without the aid of Chinese and sometimes of Dutch almanacks, to form a true kalendar, or calculate an eclipse of the sun or moon within minutes and seconds. Medicine has neither arrived nor is it likely to arrive to any degree of perfection. Anatomy is totally unknown ; the knowledge of diseases imperfect, intricate, and often fabulous. Botany and the knowledge of medicines constitute the whole of their skill. They are unacquainted with compound medicines. Their physicians always indeed feel the pulse ; but they are very tedious, not quitting for a quarter of an hour ; besides they examine first one and then the other arm, as if the blood was not driven by the same heart to both pulses. Besides those diseases, which they have in common with other countries or peculiar to themselves, the venereal disease is very frequent, which they only understood how to alleviate by decoctions thought to purify the blood. Salivation, which their physicians have heard mentioned by the Dutch surgeons, appears to them extremely formidable both to conduct and to undergo ; but they have lately learnt the art of employing sublimate with much success. Jurisprudence is not an extensive study in Japan. No country has fewer law books or fewer judges. Explanations of the law and advocates are things altogether unknown ; but no where perhaps are the laws more certainly put in force, without respect to persons, without partiality or violence. They are very strict, and law-suits very short. The Japanese know little more of physics or chemistry than what they have learned of late years of the Europeans.

CHAPTER III.

China.

CHINA is bounded on the east by the ocean, on the north by Tartary, on the west by Tibet and Hindostan, and on the south-west and south on the Ganges. It contains 15 provinces within the wall, and the province of Lyau-tong beyond that barrier. The names, extent, and the population of the former will appear from the following table.

Provinces.	Population.	Square Miles.	Provinces.	Population.	Square Miles.
Pecheli	38,000,000	58,949	Shang-tong	24,000,000	65,104
Kiang-nan	32,000,000	92,961	Shan-si	27,000,000	55,268
Kiang-si	19,000,000	72,176	Shen-si	30,000,000	154,008
Iche-kiang	21,000,000	39,150	Sechuen	27,000,000	166,800
Fo-kien	15,000,000	53,480	Quang-tong	21,000,000	79,456
Hou-quang	27,000,000	144,770	Quang-si	10,000,000	78,250
Ho-nan	25,000,000	65,104	Yu-nan	8 000,000	107,969
			Koe-icheou	9,000,000	64,554
			Total	333,000,000	1,297,999

The climate, as well as the soil of this extensive empire, is very different in different parts; severe cold being often felt in the northern provinces, while the inhabitants of the southern ones are scarce able to bear the heat. In general, however, the air is counted wholesome, and the inhabitants live to a great age. The northern and western provinces have many mountains, which in the latter are cultivated, but in the north are barren, rocky, and incapable of improvement. On the mountains of Shensi, Honan, Quangton, and Sokern, are many forests abounding with tall straight trees of different kinds, fit for building, and particularly adapted for masts and ship timber. These are used by the emperor in his private buildings; and from these forests enormous trunks are sometimes transported to the distance of more than 300 leagues. Other mountains contain quicksilver, iron, tin, copper, gold, and silver. Formerly these last were not allowed to be opened, lest the people thereby should be induced to neglect the natural interest of the soil; and it is certain that in the 15th century, the emperor caused a mine of precious stones to be shut which had been opened by a private person. Of late, however, the Chinese are less scrupulous, and a great trade in gold is carried on by them.

China has several large lakes; the principal one is that named Poyang-hou, in the province of Kiang-si. It is formed by the confluence of four large rivers, ex-

tends near 100 leagues in length, and, like the sea, its waters are raised in tempestuous waves. The empire is watered by an immense number of rivers of different sizes, of which two are particularly celebrated, viz, the Yang-se-Kiang, or son of the sea, and Hoang-ho, or the yellow river. The former rises in the province of Yu-nan, and passing through Hou-quang and Kiang-nan falls into the Eastern Ocean, after a course of 1200 miles, opposite to the island of Ison-mung, which is formed by the sand accumulated at its mouth. This river is of immense size, being half a league broad at Nanking, which is near 100 miles from its mouth. The navigation is dangerous, so that great numbers of vessels are lost in it. It runs with a rapid current, forming several islands in its course, which are again carried off, and new ones formed in different places when the river is swelled by the torrents from the mountains. These islands, while they remain, are very useful; producing great quantities of reeds, 10 or 12 feet high, which are used in all the neighbouring countries for fuel. The Hoang-ho or yellow river has its name from the yellow colour given it by the clay and sand washed down in the time of rain. It rises in the mountains which border the province of Se-tchuen on the west, and after a course of near 600 leagues discharges itself into the Eastern sea, not far from the mouth of the Kiang. It is very broad and rapid, but so shallow that it is scarcely navigable. It is very liable to inundations, often overflowing its banks and destroying whole villages. For this reason it has been found necessary to confine it in several places by long and strong dykes; which yet do not entirely answer their purpose. The people of Honan therefore, whose land is exceedingly low, have surrounded most of their cities with strong ramparts of earth, fenced with turf, at the distance of three furlongs.

The Chinese have been at great pains to turn their lakes and rivers to the advantage of commerce, by promoting an inland navigation. One of their principal works for this purpose is the celebrated canal reaching from Canton to Pekin, and forming a communication between the southern and northern provinces. This canal extends through no less a space than 600 leagues; but its navigation is interrupted in one place by a mountain, where passengers are obliged to travel 10 or 12 leagues over land. A number of other canals are met with in this and other provinces; most of which have been executed by the industry of the inhabitants of different cities and towns, in order to promote their communication with the various parts of the empire. M. Grosier remarks that in these works the Chinese have surmounted obstacles that perhaps would have discouraged any other people; such, for an example, is part of a canal which conducts from Chao-king to Ning-po. Near these cities there are two canals, the waters of which do not communicate, and which differ 10 or 12 feet in their level. To render this place passable for boats, the Chinese hac constructed a double glacis of large stones, or rather two inclined planes, which unite in an acute angle at their upper extremity, and extend on each side to the surface of the water. If the bark be in the lower canal they push it up the plane of the first glacis by means of several capstans, until it is raised to the angle, when by its own weight it glides down the second glacis, and precipitates itself into the water of the higher canal with the velocity of an arrow. It is astonishing

that these barks, which are generally very long and heavily laden, never burst asunder when they are balanced on this acute angle; however we never hear of any accident of this kind happening in the passage. It is true they take the precaution of using for their keels a kind of wood which is exceedingly hard, and proper for resisting the violence of such an effort.

The following remarkable phenomenon in a Chinese river is related by Father le Courteux, a French missionary. Some leagues above the village Che-pai (says he) the river becomes considerably smaller, although none of its waters flow into any other channel; and eight or nine leagues below it resumes its former breadth without receiving any additional supply, excepting what it gets from a few small rivulets, which are almost dry during the greater part of the year. Opposite to Che-pai it is so much diminished that, excepting one channel, which is not very broad, I have passed and repassed it several times by the help of a common pole. I was always surprised to find this river so narrow and shallow in this place; but I never thought of inquiring into the cause of it, until the loss of a bark, belonging to a Christian family, afforded me an opportunity. In that place where the river diminishes almost of a sudden it flows with great impetuosity, and where it resumes its former breadth it is equally rapid. At the sixth moon, when the water was high and the wind strong, the bark I have mentioned arriving above Che-pai, was driven on a sand bank; for between these two places the river is full of moveable sand banks, which are continually shiftening their situation. The master of the boat dropped his anchor until the wind should abate and permit him to continue his voyage; but a violent vortex of moveable sand, which was cast up from the bottom of the river, laid the bark on its side; a second vortex succeeded; then a third; and afterwards a fourth, which shattered the bark to pieces. When I arrived at the place where this bark had been lost, the weather was mild and serene; I perceived eddies in the current every where around; which absorbed and carried to the bottom of the river whatever floated on the surface; and at the same time the sand was thrown violently up with a vortical motion. Above these eddies the water was rapid, but without any fall; and in the place below, where the river resumes its usual course, no eddies are to be seen; but the sand is thrown up in the same violent manner; and in some places there are water-falls, and a kind of small islands scattered at some distance from one another. These islands which appear above the surface of the water, are not solid earth, but consist of branches of trees, roots, and herbs, collected together. I was told that these boughs rose up from the water, and that no one knew the place from whence they came. I was informed that these masses, which are 40 or 50 feet in extent on that side on which we passed, were immoveable and fixed in the bottom of the river; that it was dangerous to approach them, because the water formed whirlpools every where around them; that, however, when the river was very low, the fishermun sometimes ventured to collect the bulses that floated on its surface, and which they used for fuel. I am of opinion that at the place of the river which is above Che-pai the water falls into deep pits, from whence it forces up the sand with that vortical motion; and that it flows under-ground to the other place, eight or nine leagues below, where it

carries with it all the boughs, weeds, and roots, which it washes down in its course, and thus forms those islands which appear above its surface. We know there are some rivers that lose themselves entirely or in part in the bowels of the earth, and which afterwards arise in some other place; but I believe there never was one known to lose part of its water below its own channel and again to recover it at the distance of some leagues."

It has already been said that China is in general a fertile country, and indeed all travellers agree in this respect, and make encomiums on the extent and beauty of its plains. So careful are the husbandmen of this empire to lose none of their ground, that neither inclosure, hedge, nor ditch, nay scarce a single tree are ever to be met with. In several places the land yields two crops a-year, and even in the interval between the harvests the people sow several kinds of pulse and small grain. The plains of the northern provinces yield wheat; those of the southern rice, because the country is low and covered with water. Notwithstanding all this fertility, however, the inhabitants are much more frequently afflicted with famine than those of the European nations, though the countries of Europe produce much less than China. For this two causes are assigned. First the destruction of the rising crops by drought, hail, inundations, locusts, &c.; in which case China cannot, like the European countries, be supplied by importation. This is evident by considering how it is situated with regard to other nations. On the north are the Mogul Tartars, a lazy, indolent race, who subsist principally on the flesh of their flocks; sowing only a little millet for their own use. The province of Leatong, which lies to the north-east, is indeed extremely fertile, but too far distant from the capital and centre of the empire to supply it with provisions; and besides all carriage is impracticable, but in the winter, when great quantities of game and fish, preserved in ice, are sent thither. No corn is brought from Corea to China; and though the Japan islands are only three or four days sailing from the Chinese provinces of Kiang-nan and Che-kyang, yet no attempt was ever made to obtain provisions from thence; whether it be that the Japanese have nothing to spare, or, on account of the insults offered by these islanders to foreign merchants. Formosa lies opposite to the province of Fo-hien; but so far is that island from being able to supply any thing, that, in a time of scarcity, it requires a supply from China itself. The province of Canton is also bounded by the sea, and has nothing on the south but islands and remote countries. One year, when rice was exceedingly scarce there, the emperor sent for F. Paranin, a Jesuit missionary, and asked him if the city of Mocao could not furnish Canton with rice, until the supply he had ordered from other provinces should arrive: but was informed that Mocao had neither rice, corn, fruits, herbs, nor flocks; and that it generally got from China what was necessary for its subsistence. The only method therefore the Chinese can take to guard against famines arising from these causes is to erect granaries and public magazines in every province, and most of the principal cities of the empire. This has at all times been a principal object of care to the public ministers; but though this mode of relief still takes place in theory, so many ceremonies are to be gone through before any supply can be drawn from those public repositories, that it seldom arrives seasonably at the places where it was wanted; and thus numbers of unhappy wretches

perish for want. Second, Another cause for the scarcity of grain in this empire is the prodigious consumption of it in the composition of wines, and a spirituous liquor called rack. But though government is well apprized that this is one of the principal sources of famine throughout the empire, it never employed means sufficient to prevent it. Proclamations indeed have frequently been issued, prohibiting the distillation of rack; and the appointed officers will visit the still-houses and destroy the furnaces if nothing is given them: but on slipping some money into their hands they shut their eyes, and go somewhere else to receive another bribe. When the mandarin himself goes about, however, these distillers do not escape quite so easily; the workmen being whipped and imprisoned, after which they are obliged to carry a kind of collar, called the canque; the masters likewise are obliged to change their habitations, and conceal themselves for a short time, after which they generally resume their operations. It is impossible, however, that any method of this kind can prove effectual in suppressing these manufactories, while the liquors themselves are allowed to be sold publicly; and against this there is no law throughout the empire. Our author, however, justly observes, that in case of a prohibition of this kind, the grandees would be obliged to deny themselves the use of their luxuries, which would be too great a sacrifice for the good of the empire.

The population of China is so great, in comparison with that of the European countries, that the accounts of it have generally been treated as fabulous by the western nations; but by an accurate investigation of some Chinese records concerning the number of people liable to taxation throughout the empire, sir G. Slaunton has showed that it cannot be less than 333,000,000. For this extraordinary population are assigned the following causes. First the strict observance of filial duty throughout the empire, and the prerogatives of fraternity, which makes a son the most valuable property of a father. Second, The infamy attached to the memory of those who die without children. Third, The universal custom by which the marriage of children becomes the principal concern of the parents. Fourth, the honours bestowed by the state on those widows who do not marry a second time. Fifth, Frequent adoptions, which prevent families from becoming extinct. Sixth, The return of wealth to its original stock, by the disinheriting of daughters. Seventh, the marriage of soldiers. Eighth, The fixed state of taxes; which being always laid upon lands, never fall but indirectly on the trader and mechanic. Ninth, The small number of sailors and travellers. Tenth, To these may be added the great number of people who reside in China only by intervals; the profound peace which the empire enjoys; the frugal and laborious manner in which the great live; the little attention which is paid to the vain and ridiculous prejudice of marrying below one's rank; the antient policy of giving distinction to men and not to families; by attaching nobility only to employments and talents, without suffering it to become hereditary. And lastly, A decency of public manners, and a total ignorance of scandalous intrigues and gallantry.

The government of China is purely patriarchal. The emperor is more unlimited in his authority than any other potentate on earth; no sentence of death pronounced by any of the tribunals, can be executed without his consent, and every verdict in civil

affairs is subject to be revised by him; nor can any determination be of force until it has been confirmed by the emperor: and, on the contrary, whatever sentence he passes is executed without delay; his edicts are respected throughout the empire as if they came from a divinity; he alone has the disposal of all his offices, nor is there any such thing as the purchase of places in China; merit, real or supposed, raises to an office, and rank is attached to it only. Even the succession to the throne is not altogether hereditary. The emperor of China has the power of choosing his own successor without consulting any of his nobility, and can select one, not only from among his own children, but even from the body of his people; and there have been several instances of his making use of this right; and he has even the power of altering this succession after it has been once fixed, in case the person pitched upon does not behave towards him with proper respect. The emperor can also prevent the princes of the blood from bearing the title with which, according to the constitution of the empire, they are invested. They may indeed, notwithstanding this, possess their hereditary dignity; in which case they are allowed a revenue proportioned to their high birth, as well as a palace, officers, and a court; but they have neither influence nor power, and their authority is lower than that of the meanest mandarin.

The mandarins are of two classes, viz those of letters, and the inferior sort, styled mandarins of arms. The latter, by no means enjoy the same consideration with the former sort; indeed, in China, the literati are highly honoured, and to their influence M. Grosier supposes that we may, in a great measure, ascribe the mildness and equity of the government, though he thinks that the balance may incline rather too much in their favour. Several degrees answering to those of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor must be past through before one can attain to the dignity of mandarin of letters; though sometimes, by the favour of the emperor, it is conferred on those that have attained only the two first degrees: but even the persons who have gone through all the three, enjoy at first only the government of a city of the second or third class. When several vacancies happen in the government of cities, the emperor invites to court a corresponding number of the literati, whose names are written down in a list. The names of the vacant governments are then put into a box, raised so high that the candidates are able only to reach it with their hands; after which, they draw in their turns, and each is appointed governor of the city whose name he has drawn.

The armies of this empire are proportioned to its vast extent and population; being computed, in time of peace, at more than 700,000. Their pay amounts to about two-pence halfpenny, and a measure of rice, per day, though some of them have double pay, and the pay of horsemen is double to that of a foot soldier; the emperor furnishes a horse, and the horseman receives two measures of small beans for his daily subsistence; the arrears of the army being punctually paid up every three months.

The arms of a horseman are a helmet, cuirass, lance, and sabre; those of a foot soldier are a pike and sabre; some have fuzees, and others bows and arrows. All these are carefully inspected at every review; and if any of them were found in the least rust-

long acquainted with the use of gunpowder for blowing up fire-works, and other purposes; but it is not till within the two or three centuries that they have been possessed of guns.

The best soldiers in China are procured from the three northern provinces, the others being seldom called forth, but allowed to remain at peace with their families; indeed there is not even occasion for exerting their military talents, unless it be in the quelling of an insurrection, when a mandarin or governor usually accompanies them. They march in a very tumultuous manner, but want neither skill nor agility in performing their different evolutions. They, in general, handle a sabre well, and shoot very dexterously with bows and arrows. There are in China more than 2000 places of arms; and through the different provinces there are dispersed about 3000 towers or castles, all of them defended by garrisons. Soldiers continually mount guard there; and the first appearance of tumult the nearest sentinel makes a signal from the top of the tower, by twisting a flag in the day-time, or lighting a torch in the night; when the neighbouring garrisons immediately repair to the place where their presence is necessary.

The principal defence of the empire, against a foreign enemy, is the great wall, which separates China from Tartary, extending more than 1500 miles in length, and of such thickness that six horsemen may easily ride abreast upon it. It is flanked with towers, two bow-shots distance from one another; and it is said, that a third of the able-bodied men in the empire were employed in constructing it. The workmen were ordered under pain of death, to place the materials so closely that not the least entrance might be afforded for any instrument of iron; and thus the work was constructed with such solidity that it is still almost entire, though 2000 years have elapsed since it was constructed. This extraordinary work is carried on not only through the low lands and valleys but over hills and mountains: the height of one of which was computed by F. Verbiest at 1236 feet above the level of the spot where he stood. According to F. Martini, it begins at the gulph of Lea-tong, and reaches to the mountains near the city of Kin on the Yellow river; between which places it meets with no interruption, except to the north of the city of Suen, in the province of Pecheli, where it is interrupted by a ridge of hideous and inaccessible mountains, to which it is closely united. It is likewise interrupted by the river Hoang-ho; but for others of an inferior size, arches have been constructed through which the waters pass freely. Mr. Bell informs us that it is carried across rivers and over the tops of the highest hills without the least interruption, keeping nearly along that circular range of barren rocks which incloses the country; and after running about 1200 miles, ends in impassable mountains and sandy deserts. The foundation consists of large blocks of stone, laid in mortar; but all the rest is of brick. The whole is so strong and well built that it scarcely needs any repairs; and in the dry climate in which it stands, may remain in the same condition for many

W.M. Craig del.

J. Barlow sculp.

View of the great WALL that divides CHINA from TARTARY.

from an original Painting in the Collection of J. Bruce Esq.r

ages. When carried over steep rocks, where no horse can pass, is about 15 or 20 feet high; but when running through a valley, or crossing a river, it is about 30 feet high, with square towers, and ambrasures at equal distances. The top is flat and paved with cut stone; and where it rises over a rock or eminence, there is an ascent made by an easy stone stair. "This wall (our author adds) was begun and completely finished in the short space of five years; and it is reported that the labourers, for many miles, stood so close that they could handle the materials from one to another. This seems the more probable, as the rugged rocks among which it was built must have prevented all use of carriages; and neither clay for making bricks, nor any kind of cement are to be found among them.

The whole civil government of China is managed by the following courts: 1. The emperor's grand council, composed of all the ministers of state, presidents, and assessors of the six sovereign courts, and of three others to be afterwards mentioned. This is never assembled but on affairs of the greatest importance; the emperor's private council being substituted to it in cases of smaller moment. 2. The chief of the other courts furnishes mandarins for the different provinces, watches over their conduct, and keeps a journal of their transactions, and informs the emperor of them, who rewards or punishes according to the report he gets.

This second tribunal, which may be called a kind of civil inquisition, is subdivided into four others; the first entrusted with the care of selecting those, who, on account of their learning or other good properties are capable of filling the offices of government; the second appointed to take care of the conduct of the mandarins; the third affixing the seals to the different public acts, giving the seals to mandarins, and examining those of the different dispatches: while the fourth enquires into the merit of the grandees of the empire, not excepting the princes of the imperial blood themselves. The principal sovereign court to which these four last are subordinate is called Lii-pou.

2. Hou-pou, or the grand treasurer, superintends all the finances of the state; is the guardian and protector of the treasures and dominions of the emperor, keeping an account of his revenues, &c.; superintending the management and coining of money; the public magazines, custom houses; and, lastly, keeping an exact register of all the families in the empire. To assist this court, 14 others are appointed throughout the different provinces of the empire.

3. Lii-pou, or the court of ceremonies. "It is an undoubted fact (says M. Grosier) that ceremonies form, in part, the base of the Chinese government. This tribunal takes care to support them and enforce their observance; it inspects also the arts and sciences It is consulted by the emperor when he designs to confer particular honours; takes care of the annual sacrifices offered by him, and even regulates the entertainments which he gives either to strangers or to his own subjects; it also receives and entertains foreign ambassadors, and preserves tranquillity among the different religious sects, in the empire. It is assisted by four inferior tribunals.

4. Ping-pou, or the tribunal of arms, comprehends in its jurisdiction the whole militia of the empire; inspecting also the fortresses, magazines, arsenals, and store-

houses of every kind, as well as the many factories of arms, both offensive and defensive; examining and appointing officers of every rank. It is composed entirely of mandarins of letters; and the four tribunals depending upon it consist also of literati.

5. The Hong-pou is the criminal bench for the whole empire, and is assisted by 14 subordinate tribunals.

6. The Cong-pou, or tribunal of public works, surveys and keeps in repair the emperor's palaces, as well as those of the princes and viceroys, and the buildings where the tribunals are held, with the temples, tombs of the sovereigns, and all public monuments. It has besides the superintendence of the streets, public highways, bridges, lakes, rivers, and every thing relating either to internal or foreign navigation. Four inferior tribunals assist in the discharge of these duties; the first drawing the plans of public works: the second directing the work-shops in the different cities of the empire; the third surveying the causeways, roads, bridges, canals, &c.; and the fourth taking care of the emperor's palaces, gardens, and orchards, and receiving their produce.

All these tribunals are composed one half of Chinese and the other of Tartars; and one of the presidents of each superior tribunal is always a Tartar born. None of the courts above described, however, has absolute authority, even in its own jurisdiction; nor can its decisions be carried into execution without the concurrence of another tribunal, and sometimes of several others.

To prevent any unlawful combination among the tribunals, each has its censor appointed. This is an officer, whose duty is merely to watch over the proceedings of the court, without deciding upon any thing himself. He assists therefore at all assemblies, revises all their acts, and, without acquainting the court in the least with either his sentiments or intentions, immediately informs the emperor of what he judges to be amiss. He likewise gives information of the behaviour of the mandarins, either in the public administration of affairs or in their private conduct; nay, sometimes he will not scruple to reprimand the emperor for what he supposes to be erroneous in his conduct.

These censors form a tribunal of their own, called tou-tche-yven.

There are still two other courts in China, both of them peculiar to the empire, which deserve to be mentioned. The first is that of princes; and which, in conformity with its title, is composed of princes only. In the registers of this tribunal are inscribed the names of all the children of the imperial family, as well as dignities and titles which the emperor confers upon them. This is the only tribunal where the princes can be tried, and here they are absolved or punished according to the pleasure of the judges.

The other tribunal is that of history, called by the Chinese han-lui-yvan. It is composed of the greatest geniuses of the empire, and men of the most profound erudition. These are entrusted with the education of the heir apparent to the throne, and the compilation and arrangement of the general history of the empire; which last part of their office renders them formidable even to the emperor himself. From this body the mandarins of the first class and the presidents of the supreme class are generally chosen.

The basis of all the civil laws of the Chinese is filial piety. Every mandarin, who is

a governor either of a province or a city, must instruct the people assembled around him twice a-month, and recommend to them the observance of certain salutary rules, which are summed up in a few short sentences, and such as no person can ever be supposed capable of forgetting.

The slightest punishment in China is the bastinado; and the number of blows is to be determined by the degree of the offender's guilt. Twenty is the lowest number; and in this case the punishment is considered as having nothing infamous in it, but being only a simple paternal correction. In this way the emperor sometimes orders it to be inflicted on his courtiers; which does not prevent them from being afterwards received into favour and as much respected as before. Every mandarin may inflict the bastinado when any one forgets to salute him, or when he sits in judgment in public. The instrument of correction is called pan-tsee, and is a piece of bamboo, a little flatted, broad at the bottom, and polished at the upper extremity, in order to manage it more easily with the hand. When the punishment is to be inflicted, the magistrate sits gravely behind a table, having on it a bag filled with small sticks, while a number of petty officers stand around him, each furnished with these pan-tsees, and waiting only for his signal to make use of them. The mandarin then takes out one of the little sticks contained in the bag, and throws it into the hall of audience. On this the culprit is seized, and stretched out with his belly towards the ground; his breeches are pulled down to his heels, and an athletic domestic applies five smart blows with his pan-tsee. If the judge draw another small stick from the bag another officer succeeds, and bestows five more blows, and so on until the judge makes no more signals. When the punishment is over, the criminal must throw himself on his knees, incline his body three times to the earth, and thank the judge for the care he takes of his education.

For faults of a higher nature the carrying of a wooden collar, called by the Portuguese the cangue, is inflicted. This machine is composed of two pieces of wood, hollowed out in the middle, which, when put together, leave sufficient room for the neck. These are laid upon the shoulders of the criminal, and joined together in such a manner that he can neither see his feet nor put his hands to his mouth; so that he is incapable of eating without the assistance of another. This disagreeable burden he is obliged to carry day and night; its weight is from 50 to 200 pounds, according to the enormity of the crime, to which the time of carrying it is also proportioned. For robbery, breaking the peace, or disturbing a family, or being a notorious gambler, it is generally carried three months. During all this time the criminal is not allowed to take shelter in his own house, but is stationed for a certain space of time either in some public square, the gate of a city or temple, or, perhaps, even of the tribunal where he was condemned. On the expiration of his term of punishment he is again brought before the judge, who exhorts him in a friendly manner to mend; and after giving him 20 sound blows, discharges him.

Banishment is inflicted for crimes of a nature inferior to homicide, and the duration is often for life, if the criminals be sent into Tartary.

Their capital punishments consist of strangling, beheading, and cutting in a thousand pieces.

Every city in China is divided into different quarters, each of which is subjected to the inspection of a certain officer, who is answerable for whatever passes in the places under his jurisdiction. Fathers of families as we have already observed, are answerable for the conduct of their children and domestics. Neighbours are even obliged to answer for one another, and are bound to give every help and assistance in cases of robbery fire, or any accident, especially in the night-time. All the cities are furnished with gates, which are barricaded on the commencement of night. Centinels are also posted at certain distances through the streets, who stop all who walk in the night; and a number of horsemen go round the ramparts for the same purpose; so that it is almost impossible to elude their vigilance by favour of the darkness. A strict watch is also kept during the day-time; and all those who give any suspicion of their looks, accent, or behaviour, are immediately carried before a mandarin, and sometimes even detained until the pleasure of the governor be known.

Private quarrels do not often happen in China, and it is rare that they are attended with a fatal issue. The champions sometimes decide the quarrel with their fists, but most frequently refer the case to a mandarin, who very often orders them both a sound drubbing. None but military people are permitted to wear arms in public; and this privilege is extended even to them only during the time of war, or when they accompany a mandarin, mount guard, or attend a review. Prostitutes are not allowed to remain within the walls of a city, or to keep a house of their own even in the suburbs. They may, however, lodge in the house of another; but that other is accountable for every disturbance which may happen on their account.

In all the Chinese cities, and even in some of their ordinary towns, there is an office where money may be borrowed upon pledges, at the common rate of the country, which however is no less than 30 per cent. Every pledge is marked with a number when left at the office, and must be produced when demanded; but it becomes the property of the office it left there a single day longer than the term agreed upon for the payment of the money. The whole transaction remains an inviolable secret; not even the name of the person who leaves the pledge being inquired after.

Great attention is paid by the administration of China to the conveniency of travellers; the roads are generally very broad, all of them paved in the southern provinces and some in the northern; but neither horses nor carriages are allowed to pass along these. In many places valleys have been filled up, and rocks and mountains cut through for the purpose of making commodious highways, and to preserve as nearly as possible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees, and in some places with walls eight or ten feet high, to prevent travellers from going into the fields; but openings are left in proper places, which give a passage into cross roads, that lead to different villages. Covered seats are erected on all the great roads, where travellers may shelter themselves from the inclemency of the weather; temples and pagods are also frequent,

into which travellers are admitted without scruple in the day-time, but often meet a refusal in the night. In these the mandarins only have a right to rest themselves as long as they think proper. There is, however, no want of inns on the great roads, or even the cross ones in China; but they are ill supplied with provisions, and those who frequent them are even obliged to carry beds along with them to sleep on, or else take up with a plain mat.

Towers are erected on all the roads of this great empire, with watch-boxes on the top, with flag-staffs, for the convenience of signals in case of any alarm. These towers are square, and generally constructed of brick, but seldom exceed 12 feet in height. They are built, however, in sight of one another, and are guarded by soldiers, who run with great speed from one to another, carrying letters which concern the emperor. Intelligence of any remarkable event is also conveyed by signals; and thus the court is informed, with surprising quickness, of any important matter. Those which are built on any of the roads conducting to court are furnished with battlements, and have also very large bells of cast iron. According to law these towers should be only five lys or half a French league distant from one another.

There is no public post-office in China, though several private ones have been established; but the couriers and officers charged with dispatches for the empire have only a right to make use of them. This inconvenience, however, excepted, travellers find conveyance very easy from one part of China to another. Great numbers of porters are employed in every city, all of whom are associated under the conduct of a chief, who regulates all their engagements, fixes the prices of their labour, receives their hire, and is responsible for every thing they carry. When porters are wanted he furnishes as many as may be necessary, and gives the same number of tickets to the traveller; who returns one to each porter when they have conveyed their loads to an appointed place. These tickets are carried back to the chief, who immediately pays them from the money he received in advance. On all the great roads in China there are several offices of this kind, which have a settled correspondence with others; the travellers, therefore, have only to carry to one of these offices a list of such things as they wish to have transported; this is immediately written down in a book; and though there should be occasion for 2, 3, or 400 porters, they are instantly furnished. Every thing is weighed before the eyes of their chief, and the hire is five-pence per hundred weight for one day's carriage. An exact register of every thing is kept in the office; the traveller pays the money in advance, after which he has no occasion to give himself any further trouble; on his arrival at the city he designs, his baggage is found at the corresponding office, and every thing is delivered to him with the most scrupulous exactness.

The commerce of China is under the inspection of the tribunal of finances; but on this subject the Chinese entertain an opinion quite different from that of the Europeans. Commerce, according to them, is only useful as far as it eases the people of their superfluities, and procures them necessaries. For this reason they consider that even which is carried on at Canton as prejudicial to the interest of the empire. "They take from us (say the Chinese) our silks, teas, and porcelain: the price of these articles is raised

through all the provinces; such a trade, therefore cannot be beneficial. The money brought us by Europeans, and the high-priced baubles that accompany it, are mere superfluities to such a state as ours. We have no occasion for more bullion than what may be able to answer the exigencies of government and to supply the relative want of individuals. It was said by Konan-tse, 2000 years ago, That the money introduced does not enrich a kingdom in any other way than it is introduced by commerce. No commerce can be advantageous long but that which consists in a mutual exchange of things necessary or useful. That trade, whether carried on by barter or money, which has for its object the importing of articles that tend to the gratification of pride, luxury, or curiosity, always supposes the existence of luxury: but luxury, which is an abundance of superfluities among certain classes of people, supposes the want of necessaries among a great many others. The more horses the rich put to the carriages the greater will be the number of those who are obliged to walk on foot; the larger and more magnificent their houses are, so much more confined and wretched must those of the poor be; and the more their tables are covered with a variety of dishes, the more must the number of those increase who are reduced to the necessity of feeding upon plain rice. Men, united by society, in a large and populous kingdom, can employ their industry, talents, and economy, to no better purposes than to provide necessaries for all, and procure conveniences for some."

The only commerce considered by the Chinese as advantageous to their empire is that with Russia and Tartary; by which they are supplied with those furs so necessary in the northern provinces. The disputes concerning the limits of the respective empires of Russia and China seemed to have paved the way to this commerce. These disputes were settled by a treaty on the 27th of August, 1689, under the reign of Ivan and Peter Alexiowitz. The chief of the embassy, on the part of Russia, was Golovin, governor of Siberia; and two Jesuits were deputed on the part of the emperor of China; and the conferences were held in Latin, with a German in the Russian ambassador's train, who was acquainted with that language. By this treaty the Russians obtained a regular and permanent trade with China, which they had long desired; but, in return, they yielded up a large territory, besides the navigation of the river Amour. The first intercourse had taken place in the beginning of the 17th century; at which time a small quantity of merchandize was procured, by some Russian merchants, from the Kalmuc Tartars. The rapid and profitable sale of these commodities encouraged certain Siberian Waywodes to attempt a direct and open communication with China. For this purpose several deputations were sent to the emperor, and though they failed of obtaining the grant of a regular commerce, their attempts were attended with some consequences of importance. Thus the Russian merchants were tempted to send traders occasionally to Pekin; by which means, a faint connection was preserved with that metropolis. This commerce, however, was at last interrupted by the commencement of hostilities on the river Amour; but after the conclusion of the treaty in 1768, was resumed with uncommon alacrity on the part of the Russians; and the advantages thence arising were found to be so considerable, that a design of enlarging it was formed by Peter the Great.

Isbrand Ides, a native of the duchy of Holstein, then in the Russian service, was therefore dispatched to Pekin, in 1692; by whose means the liberty of trade, before confined to individuals, was now extended to caravans. In the mean time, private merchants continued to trade, as before, not only with the Chinese, but also at the head-quarters of the Mogul Tartars. The camp of these roving Tartars, which was generally stationed near the confluence of the Orbon and Toula rivers, between the southern frontiers of Siberia; and the Mogul desert thus became the seat of an annual fair. Complaints however were soon made of the disorderly behaviour of the Russians; on which the Chinese monarch threatened to expel them from his dominions entirely, and to allow them neither to trade with the Chinese nor Moguls. This produced another embassy to Pekin, in 1719, when matters were again adjusted to the satisfaction of both parties. The reconciliation was of no long duration; for the Russians having soon renewed their disorderly behaviour, an order for their expulsion was issued in 1722, and all intercourse between the two nations forbidden. The differences were once more made up, in 1727, and a caravan allowed to go to Pekin once in three years, provided it consist of no more than 100 persons; and that during their stay their expenses should as formerly, be defrayed by the emperor of China. The Russians at the same time obtained permission to build a church within the precincts of the caravansary; and that four priests were allowed to reside at Pekin for the celebration of divine service; the same indulgence being granted to some Russian scholars, for the purpose of learning the Chinese language, and qualifying themselves for being interpreters between the two nations. This intercourse continued till the year 1755, since which time no more caravans have been sent to China. It was first interrupted by a misunderstanding betwixt the two courts; and though that difference was afterwards made up, no caravans have been sent ever since. The empress of Russia, sensible that the monopoly of the fur trade (which was entirely confined to the caravans belonging to the crown, and prohibited to individuals) was prejudicial to commerce, gave it up in favour of her subjects, in 1762; and the centre of commerce betwixt the two nations is now at Kiatka. Here the trade is entirely carried on by barter. The Russians are prohibited from exporting their own coin: finding it more advantageous to take goods in exchange than to receive bullion at the Chinese standard. The principal exports from Russia are furs of different kinds; the most valuable of which are those of sea-otters, beavers, wolves, foxes, martens, sables, and ermines; the greater part of which are brought from Siberia and the newly discovered islands; but as they cannot supply the demand, there is a necessity for importing foreign furs to Petersburg, which are afterwards sent to Kiatka. Various kinds of cloth are likewise sent to China, as well as hard-ware, and live cattle, such as horses, camels, &c. The exports from China are raw and manufactured silk, cotton, porcelain, rhubard, musk, &c. The government of Russia likewise reserves to itself the exclusive privilege of purchasing rhubarb. It is brought to Kiatka by some Bukharian merchants, who have entered into a contract to supply the crown with it in exchange for furs; the exportation of the best rhubarb is forbidden under severe penalties, but is procured in sufficient quantities by chandestinely mixing it with inferior roots

and sometimes by smuggling it directly. Great part of Europe is supplied with rhubarb from Russia.

From the accounts we have from the education of children in China one might be apt to conclude that they ought to be the most intelligent people in the world. The book of ceremonies directs the education of a child to commence as soon as it is born, and describes exactly the qualities which its nurse ought to have. She must speak little, adhere strictly to truth, have a mild temper, behave with affability to her equals, and with respect to her superiors. The child is taught to use the right hand as soon as it can put its hand to his mouth, and then it is weaned. At six years of age, if a male, he is taught the numbers most in use, and made acquainted with the names of the principal parts of the world; at seven he is separated from his sisters, and no longer allowed to eat with them nor to sit down in their presence; at eight he is instructed in the rules of good breeding and politeness; at nine he studies the kalendar; at 10 he is sent to a public school, where he learns to read, write, and cast accounts; from 13 to 15 he is taught music, and every thing that he sings consists of moral precepts. It was formerly the custom that all the lessons designed for the Chinese youth were in verse; and it is to this day lamented that the same custom is not followed, as their education has since been rendered much more difficult and laborious.

At the age of 15 the Chinese boys are taught to handle the bow and arrow, and to mount on horseback; at 20 they receive the first cap, if they are thought to deserve it, and they are permitted to wear silk dresses, ornamented with furs; but before that period they are not allowed to wear any other thing than cotton.

Another method of initiating children into the principles of knowledge in this empire is by selecting a number of characters, expressive of the most common objects, engraving or painting separately on some kind of substance, and under the thing represented putting the name, which points out to children the meaning of the word.

As the Chinese have no proper alphabet they represent almost every thing by different characters. The labour of their youth therefore is intolerable; being obliged to study many thousand characters, each of which has a distinct and proper signification. Some ideas of their difficulties may be obtained from what we are told by F. Martini, who assures us that he was under the necessity of learning 60,000 different characters before he could read the Chinese authors with tolerable ease.

The book first put into the hands of the Chinese children is an abridgment, which points out what a child ought to learn, and the manner in which he should be taught. This volume is a collection of short sentences, consisting of three or four verses each, all of which rhyme; and they are obliged to give an account in the evening of what they have learned in the day. After this elementary treatise they put into their hands the four books which contain the doctrines of Confucius and Mencius. The sense and meaning of the work is never explained to them until they have got by heart all the characters, that is to say the words, in the book; a method no doubt inconceivably disgusting, and calculated utterly to destroy the genius of a boy, if he has any. While they are getting these characters by heart, indeed they are likewise employed in learning

to form them with a pencil. For this purpose they are furnished with large leaves of paper, on which are written or printed, with red ink, very big characters; and all they are required to do is to cover those red characters with black ink, and to follow exactly their shape and figure; which insensibly accustoms them to form the different strokes. After this they are made to trace other characters, placed under the paper on which they write. These are black and much smaller than the other. It is a great advantage to the Chinese literati to be able to paint characters well; and on this account they bestow great pains in forming the hands of young people. This is of the most consequence to literary students, in the examinations which they are obliged to undergo before they can be admitted to the first degree. Du Halde gives a remarkable instance, viz. that "A candidate for degrees having, contrary to order, made use of an abbreviation in writing, the character ma, which signifies an horse, had the mortification of seeing his composition, though, in other respects, excellent, rejected merely on that account; besides being severely rallied by the mandarin, who told him that a horse could not walk unless he had all his legs."

After the scholar has made himself master of the characters, he is then allowed to compose; but the subject of his composition is pointed out to him only by one word. Competitions are likewise established in China, but most of them are of a private nature. Twenty or thirty families, who are all of the same name, and who consequently have only one hall for the names of their ancestors, agree among themselves to send their children twice a month to this hall in order to compose. Each head of a family in turn gives the subject of this literary contest and adjudges the prize; but this costs him a dinner, which he must cause to be carried to the hall of competition. A fine of about ten-pence is imposed on the parent of each scholar who absents himself from this exercise.

It frequently happens that the mandarins of letters order these students to be brought before them, to examine the progress they have made in their studies, to excite a spirit of emulation among them, and make them give such application as may qualify them for any employment in the state. Even the governors of the cities do not think it below their dignity to take this care upon themselves; ordering all those students who reside near them to appear before their tribunal once a month; the author of the best composition is honoured with a prize, and the governor treats all the candidates on the day of competition at his own expence. In every city, town, and village in China there are schoolmasters, who teach such sciences as are known in that country. Parents, possessed of a certain fortune, provide masters for their children, to attend and instruct them, to form their minds to virtue, and to initiate them in the rules of good breeding and the accustomed ceremonies, as well as to make them acquainted with the laws and history, if their age will admit. These masters have, for the most part, attained to one or two degrees among the literati, and not unfrequently arrive at the first employments of the state.

The education of the Chinese women is confined to giving them a taste for solitude, and accustoming them to modesty and silence; and if their parents are rich they are

likewise instructed in such accomplishments as may render them agreeable to the other sex.

There is little distinction in China between the ordinary dress of men and women. Rank and dignity are distinguished by certain accessary ornaments, and the person would be severely chastised who should presume to assume them without being properly authorised. The dress in general consists in a long vest, which reaches to the ground. One part of this vest, namely that on the left side, folds over the other, and is fastened to the right by four or five small gold or silver buttons, placed at a little distance from one another. The sleeves are wide towards the shoulder, growing narrower as they approach the wrist, where they terminate in the form of a horse-shoe, covering the hands entirely, and leaving nothing but the ends of the fingers to be seen. Round their middle they wear a large girdle of silk, the ends of which hang down to their knees. From this girdle is suspended a sheath, containing a knife and two small sticks, which they use as forks. Below this robe they wear a pair of drawers, in summer made of linen, and in winter of satin lined with fur, sometimes of cotton, and in some of the northern provinces with skins. These are sometimes covered with another pair of white taffety. Their shirts are always very short and wide, of different kinds of cloth according to the season. Under these they wear a silk net, to prevent it from adhering to the skin. In warm weather they have their necks always bare; when it is cold they wear a collar made of silk, sable, or fox's skin joined to their robe, which, in winter, is trimmed with sheep's skin, or quilted with silk or cotton. That of people of quality is entirely lined with beautiful sable skins, brought from Tartary, or with the finest foxes' skins, trimmed with sable; and in the spring it is lined with ermine. Above their robe they wear also a kind of sur-tout, with wide sleeves, but very short, which is lined in the same manner. The emperor and the princes of the blood only have a right to wear yellow; certain mandarins have liberty to wear satin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. The common people are allowed to wear no other colours but blue or black, and their dress is always composed of plain cotton cloth.

Formerly the Chinese were at great pains to preserve their hair; but the Tartars, who subdued them, compelled them to cut off the greater part of it, and to alter the form of their clothes after the Tartar fashion. This revolution in dress was not effected without blood-shed, though the conqueror, at the same time, adopted in other respects the laws, manners, and customs of the conquered people. Thus the Chinese are painted as if bald, but they are not so naturally; that small portion of hair which they preserve behind or on the tops of their heads is all that is now allowed them. This they wear very long and plait like a tail. In summer they wear a kind of cap, shaped like an inverted cone, lined with satin, and covered with ratan or cane, very prettily wrought. The top terminates in a point, to which they fix a tuft of red hair, which spreads over it and covers it to the brims. This hair grows between the legs of a kind of cow, and is capable of taking any colour, especially a deep red. This ornament is much used, and any person who chooses may wear it.

A CHINESE LADY, AND CHILD, AND SERVANT.

A MANDARIN and his WIFE, with the VIEW of a TEMPLE on the BANKS of the YELLOW RIVER in CHINA.

The mandarins and literati wear a cap of the same form as the foregoing, only it is lined with red satin, and covered on the outside with white. A large tuft of the finest red silk is fixed over it, which is suffered to hang down or wave with the wind. People of distinction generally use the common cap when they mount on horseback or during bad weather; being better calculated to keep off rain, and shelter those who wear it from the rays of the sun. For winter they have another cap, bordered with sable, ermine, or fox's skin, and ornamented with a tuft of silk like the former. In these fur trimmings they are very curious, sometimes expending 40 or 50 ounces of silver upon them.

The Chinese people of rank never go abroad without boots, made of satin or some other silk, and sometimes of cotton, but always dyed; they have neither heel nor top, and are made to fit the foot with the greatest exactness. When they travel on horseback, however, they have others made of the skin of a cow or horse, made very pliable. Their boot stockings are of silk stuff, quilted and lined with cotton, reaching above the top of their boots, and ornamented with a border of velvet or cloth. In summer they wear a cooler kind, and in their houses a sort of slippers, made of silk stuff. The common people are contented with black slippers, made of cotton cloth. The fan is also a necessary appendage of the Chinese dress, and is reckoned equally necessary with the boots.

The dress of the women consists of a long robe quite close at top, and long enough to cover even their toes, with sleeves so long that they would hang down upon the ground, did they not take care to tuck them up; but their hands are seldom seen. The colour of their dresses is entirely arbitrary, but black and violet are generally chosen by those advanced in life. The young ladies, like those of Europe, make use of paint to give a bloom to their complexion; but this, though not the same with the kind used in Europe, agrees with it in the effect of soon wrinkling the skin. Their general head-dress consists in arranging their hair in several curls, among which are interspersed small tufts of gold or silver flowers. According to Dr. Halde, some of them ornament their heads with the image of a fabulous bird, concerning which many stories are told. This is made of copper or silver gilt, its wings extended, and lying pretty close to the head-dress, embracing the upper part of their temples, while the long spreading tail forms a kind of plume on the top of the head. Its body is directly over the head, and the neck and bill hang down, the former being joined to the body by a concealed hinge, in order that it may play freely and move about on the least motion of the head. The whole bird adheres to the head by means of the claws, which are fixed in the hair.

Ladies of quality sometimes wear several of these birds made up into a single ornament, the workmanship of which is very expensive. Young ladies wear also a crown made of pasteboard, the fore part of which rises in a point above the forehead, and is covered with jewels. The rest of the head is decorated with natural or artificial flowers, among which small diamond pins are interspersed. The head-dress of the ordinary class of women, especially when they are advanced in years, consists only of a piece of very fine silk, wrapped round their heads.

All authors agree that an absurd custom prevails throughout China, of confining the feet of female infants in such a manner that they are never allowed to grow to near their full size. The smallness of their feet is accounted such a valuable beauty, that the Chinese never think they can pay too dear for it. As soon therefore as a female infant is born, the nurse wraps up its feet in very tight bandages; and this torture must be endured until their feet have ceased to grow. So prevalent is the force of custom, however, that as the child grows up, she voluntarily submits to new tortures, in order to accomplish the purpose more effectually. Thus the Chinese women are deprived almost entirely of the use of their feet; and are scarce able to walk in the most awkward hobbling manner for the shortest space. The shoe of a full grown Chinese woman will frequently not exceed six inches. The practice, however, is become less frequent among the common people, especially in the north of China, where the Tartar customs in some measure prevail.

There are several public festivals annually celebrated in China. One is that already mentioned, in which the emperor tills the ground with his own hands. This is also celebrated on the same day throughout the empire. In the morning the governor of every city comes forth from his palace, crowned with flowers, and enters his chair, amidst the noise of different instruments which precede it; a great number of people attending, as is usual on all such occasions. The chair is surrounded by litters, covered with silk carpets, on which are represented either some illustrious person, who has supported and encouraged agriculture, or some historical painting on the same subject. The streets are hung with carpets; triumphal arches are erected at certain distances; lanterns every where displayed; and all the houses illuminated. During the ceremony a figure resembling a cow, made of baked earth, with gilt horns, is carried in procession, and of such enormous magnitude that 40 men are scarce sufficient to support it. A child follows, with one foot naked and the other shod, who is called the spirit of labour and diligence, and keeps continually beating the image with a rod to make it advance. Labourers, with their implements of husbandry, march behind; and the procession is closed by a number of comedians and people in masks. The governor advances towards the eastern gate, and returns in the same manner. The cow is then stripped of its ornaments, a prodigious number of earthen calves taken from its belly, and distributed among the people; after which the large figure is broken in pieces, and distributed in the same manner. The ceremony is ended by an oration in praise of agriculture, in which the governor endeavours to excite his hearers to the practice of that useful art.

Other two festivals are celebrated in China, with still more magnificence than that above described. One of them is at the commencement of the year; the other is called the feast of lanterns. During the celebration of the former all business, whether private or public, is suspended, the tribunals are shut, the posts stopped, presents are given and received, and visits paid. All the family assemble in the evening and partake of a feast, to which no stranger is admitted; though they become a little more sociable on the following day.

The feast of lanterns ought to take place on the 15th day of the first month, but

usually commences on the evening of the 15th, and does not end till that of the 16th. At that time every city and village, the shores of the sea, and the banks of all the rivers are hung with lanterns of various shapes and sizes; some of them being seen in the courts and windows, No expence is spared on this occasion; and some of the rich people will lay out eight or nine pounds sterling on one lantern. Some of these are very large, composed of six wooden frames, either neatly painted or gilt, and filled up with pieces of fine transparent silk, upon which are painted flowers, animals, and human figures; others are blue, and made of a transparent kind of horn. Several lamps and a great number of wax candles are placed in the inside: to the corners of each are fixed streamers of silk and satin, of different colours, with a curious piece of carved work on the top. They are likewise acquainted with our magic lantern, which they sometimes introduce at this festival. Besides this they have the art of forming a snake, 60 or 80 feet long, filled with lights from one end to the other; which they cause to twist itself into different forms and move about as if it was a real serpent. During the same festival all the varieties of the Chinese fire-works, so justly admired, and which sometime ago at least surpassed every thing of the kind that could be done in Europe, are exhibited.

Every public ceremony in China is carefully rendered as striking as possible. A viceroy never quits his palace but with a royal train, dressed in his robes of ceremony, and carried in a chair elegantly gilt, which is borne upon the shoulders of eight domestics; two drummers marching before the guards, and beating upon copper basons, to give notice of his approach. Eight other attendants carry standards of wood varnished, upon which are inscribed in large characters all his titles of honour. After these come 14 flags, with the symbols of his office; such as the dragon, tyger, phœnix, flying tortoise, &c. Six officers follow, each bearing a piece of board, in shape like a large shovel, on which are written in large golden characters, the qualities of the mandarin himself; two others carry, one a large umbrella of yellow silk, and the other the cover in which the umbrella is kept. The first guards are preceded by two archers on horseback; the latter are followed by others armed with a kind of weapons composed of hooked blades, fixed perpendicularly to long poles, ornamented with four tufts of silk, placed at a small distance above one another. Behind these are two other files of soldiers, some of whom carry large maces with long handles; others iron maces in the shape of a snake; others are armed with huge hammers; while those behind them carry long battle-axes, in the form of a crescent: others follow, who have battle-axes of another kind; and behind these are some with the hooked weapons already described.

Behind these come soldiers, armed with treble pointed spears, arrows, or battle-axes; having in front two men, who carry a kind of box, containing the viceroy's seal. Then come two other drummers to give notice of his approach. Two officers follow, having on their heads felt hats, adorned with plumes of feathers, and each armed with a cane to recommend regularity and good order to the surrounding multitude. Two others bear maces in the form of gilt dragons. These again are followed by a number of magistrates and officers of justice; some of whom carry whips or flat sticks, while others have chains, hangers, and silk scarfs. Two standard-bearers and a captain command

this company, which immediately precedes the governor. His chair is surrounded by pages and footmen, and an officer attends him, who carries a large fan in form of a screen: he is followed by several guards, differently armed, together with ensigns and other officers, who are also followed by a great number of domestics, all on horseback, carrying various necessaries for the use of the mandarin.

In some parts of China the tea plant grows like a common shrub scattered carelessly about, but in those where it is regularly cultivated it rises from seed sown in rows, at the distance of about four feet from each other. Its perpendicular growth is impeded for the convenience of collecting its leaves, which is done first in spring and twice afterwards in the course of the summer. Its long and tender branches spring up almost from the root without any intervening naked trunk. It is bushy, like a rose tree, and the expanded petals of the flower bear some resemblance to that of the rose. Its qualities depend on the soil where it grows, the age when the leaves are plucked off the tree, and the management of them afterwards. The largest and oldest leaves, which are the least esteemed, and destined for the use of the lowest classes of the people, are often exposed to sale with little previous manipulation, and still retaining that kind of vegetable taste which is common to most fresh plants, but which vanishes in a little time, whilst the more essential flavour, characteristic of each particular vegetable, remains long without diminution. The young leaves undergo no inconsiderable preparation before they are delivered to the purchaser. Every leaf passes through the fingers of a female, who rolls it up almost to the form it had assumed before it became expanded in the progress of its growth. It is afterwards placed upon thin plates of earthern ware or iron, and dried over a charcoal fire. It is lastly packed in large chests, lined with thin plates of lead, and the dried leaves of some large vegetable.

The art of manufacturing silk, according to the best authorities, was communicated by the Chinese to the Persians, and by them to the Greeks. The art has been known in this empire from the remotest antiquity; and the breeding of silk-worms and making of silk was one of the employments even of the empresses in very early ages.

The most beautiful silk of the whole empire is that of Tche-krang, which is wrought by the manufactories of Nankin. From these are brought all the stuffs used by the emperor, and such as he distributes in presents to his nobility. A great number of excellent workmen are also drawn to the manufactories of Canton by the commerce with Europe and other parts of Asia. Here are manufactured ribbons, stockings, and buttons. A pair of silk stockings here cost little more than six shillings sterling.

The quantity of silk produced in China seems to be almost inexhaustible; the internal consumption alone being incredibly great, besides that which is exported in commerce with Europe and the rest of Asia. In this empire all who possess a moderate fortune wear silk clothes; none but the lower class of people wearing cotton stuffs, which are commonly dyed blue. The principal stuffs manufactured by them are plain flowered gauzes, of which they make summer dresses, and damask of all colours; striped and black satins; naped, striped, flowered, clouded, and pinked taffetics; crapes,

brocades, plush, different kinds of velvet, and a multitude of other stuffs unknown in Europe. They make particular use of two kinds; one named Tonau-tse, a kind of satin, much stronger, but which has less lustre, than that of Europe; the other a kind of taffety, of which they make drawers and lining. It is woven exceedingly close; and is yet so pliable that it may be rumpled and rubbed between the hands without any crease; and even when washed like cotton cloth it loses very little of its lustre. They manufacture also a kind of gold brocades, but of such a slight nature that they cannot be worn in clothes: they are fabricated by wrapping fine slips of gilt paper round the threads of silk.

Porcelain is another great branch of Chinese manufacture, and employs a vast number of workmen. The finest is made in a village called King-te-ching, in the province of Kiang-si. Manufactories have also been erected in the provinces of Fo-kien and Canton, but their produce is not esteemed: and one which the emperor caused to be erected in Pekin, in order to be under his own inspection, miscarried entirely.

The Chinese divide their porcelain into several classes, according to its different degrees of fineness and beauty. The whole of the first is reserved for the use of the emperor, so that none of it ever comes into the hands of other persons, unless it happens to be cracked or otherwise damaged, in such a manner as to be unworthy of being presented to the sovereign. Among that sent to the emperor however, there is some porcelain of an inferior quality, which he disposes of in presents. There is some doubt therefore whether any of the finest Chinese porcelain was ever seen in Europe. Some value, however, is now put upon the European porcelain by the Chinese themselves.

Most of the Chinese medicine is absolute quackery; their skill in anatomy is not only very limited but mixed with such a number of falsehoods as render it in a manner absolutely useless. Their materia medica consists mostly of herbs, of which tea is one. To this they ascribe great and wonderful virtues, especially if it has been gathered on any of the summits of a mountain called Mong-chan. The only thing regarding this science which merits any attention is the method they are said to possess of discovering whether a man has hanged or drowned himself, or had that violence committed upon him by others. In order to discover this the body is first taken from the earth and washed in vinegar. After this a large fire is kindled in a pit, dug on purpose, six feet long, three wide, and the same in depth. This fire is continually augmented until the surrounding earth becomes as hot as an oven: the remaining fire is then taken out, a large quantity of wine is poured into it, and it is covered with a hurdle, made of osier twigs, upon which the body is stretched out at full length. A cloth is thrown over both, in the form of an arch, in order that the steam of the wine may act upon it in every direction. At the end of two hours the cloth is taken off; and if any blows have been given they then appear upon the body, in whatever state it may be. The Chinese likewise assert that if the blows given have been so severe as to occasion death, this trial makes the marks appear upon the bones, though none of them should be broken or apparently injured. The wine used in these trials is only a kind of beer, made from rice and honey.

The Chinese language consists of a small number of monosyllable words, but these

are capable of expressing a vast number of different ideas from the variation which is made in the tone with which they are pronounced. They have 80,000 characters, which are not expressive of words but things. Their ink is materially different from ours; and the pencils they use in writing are commonly made of the fur of a rabbit. They do not print with moveable types, but with blocks made of hard wood, which serve for the whole page of a book.

We here subjoin a description of Corea, which is a peninsula governed by its own king, but tributary to China.

Corea produces wheat, rice, &c. with a kind of palm-tree, which yields a gum capable of producing a yellow varnish, little inferior to gilding. Hence also are exported castor and sable skins; also gold, silver, iron, and fossil salt; a kind of small brushes, for painting, made of the hair of a wolf's tail, are likewise manufactured here, which are exported to China, and highly esteemed there. The sea-coasts aboand in fish, and great numbers of whales are found there every year towards the north-east. Several of these, it is said, have in their bodies the harpoons of the French and Dutch, from whence they have escaped in the northern extremities of Europe; which seem to indicate a passage from the European into the Asiatic seas round the continents of Europe and Asia.

A considerable quantity of the paper of Corea is annually imported into China: indeed the tribute due to the emperor is partly paid with it every year. It is made of cotton, and it is as strong as cloth, being written upon with a small hair brush or pencil; but must be done over with alum-water before it can be written upon in the European manner. It is not purchased by the Chinese for writing, but for filling up the squares of their sash windows; because when oiled it resists the wind and rain better than that of China. It is used likewise as wrapping paper; and is serviceable to the tailors, who rub it between their hands until it becomes as soft and flexible as the finest cotton cloth, instead of which it is often employed in lining clothes. It has also this singular property, that if it be too thick for the purpose intended, it may be easily split into two or three leaves, each of which are even stronger than the best paper of China.

The Coreans are well made, ingenious, brave and tractable; are fond of dancing, and shew great docility in acquiring the sciences, to which they apply with great ardour, and honour in a particular manner. The northern Coreans are larger sized and more robust than those of the south; have a taste for arms, and become excellent soldiers. Their arms are cross bows and long sabres. Men of learning are distinguished from other classes of people by two plumes of feathers in their caps; and when merchants present the Coreans with any books for sale they dress themselvs in the richest attire, and burn perfumes before they treat concerning the price.

The Coreans mourn three years, as in China, for a father or mother; but the time of mourning for a brother is confined to three months. Their dead are not interred until three years after their decease; and when the ceremony of interment is performed they place around the tomb the clothes, chariot, and horses of the deceased, with whatever else he showed the greatest fondness for while alive; all which they leave to be carried

off by the assistants. Their houses, as in China, consist only of one story, and are very ill built; in the country being composed of earth, and in cities generally of brick, but all thatched with straw: the walls of their cities are constructed after the Chinese manner, with square turrets, battlements, and arched gates. Their writing, dress, religious ceremonies, and creed, as well as the greater part of their customs, are borrowed from the Chinese. Their women, however, are less confined, and have the liberty of appearing in public with the other sex, for which they are often ridiculed by their neighbours. They differ from the Chinese also in their ceremonies of marriage, and the manner of contracting it; the parties in this country take the liberty to choose for themselves, without consulting the inclinations of their parents, or suffering them to throw any obstacles in the way.

CHAPTER IV.

The Eastern Peninsula----------*Including Tibet.*

THERE is no part of the world, in which the arts are cultivated, of which so little is known as of those countries which lie between Hindostan and the empire of China. The principal of these, for we cannot pretend to enumerate them all, are Tonquin, Laos, Cochin China, Cambodia, the kingdom of Siam, the peninsula of Malacca, the Birman empire, and Tibet, or the country of the Lamas.

Tonquin is bounded on the north by the province of Canton and the bay of Tonquin; on the south by Cochin China; and on the west by the kingdom of Laos. It is about 1200 miles in length, and 500 in breadth, and is one of the finest and most considerable kingdoms of the East, as well on account of the number of inhabitants, as the riches it contains, and the trade it carries on. The country is thick set with villages; and the natives in general are of a middle stature and clean limbed, with a tawny complexion. Their faces are oval and flattish, and their noses and lips well proportioned. Their hair is black, long, lank, and coarse; and they let it hang down their shoulders. They are generally dextrous, nimble, active, and ingenious in mechanic arts. They weave a variety of fine silks, and make curious lacker works, which are transported to other countries. There is such a number of people that many want employment; for they seldom go to work but when foreign ships arrive. The money and goods brought hither by the English and Dutch put them in action; for they have not money of their own sufficient to employ themselves, and therefore one third at least must be advanced beforehand by the merchants; and the ships must stay here till the goods are finished, which is generally five or six months. They are so addicted to gaming, that when every thing else is lost, they will stake their wives and children. The garments of the Tonquinese are made either of silk or cotton; but the poor people and soldiers wear only cotton of a dark tawny colour. Their houses are small and low; and the walls either of mud or hurdles, daubed over with clay. They have only a ground floor, with two or three partitions: and each room has a square hole to let in the light. The villages consist of 30 or 40 houses, surrounded with trees; and in some places there are banks to keep the water from overflowing their gardens, where they have oranges, betels, melons, and sallad herbs. In the rainy season they cannot pass from one house to another without wading through the water; they sometimes have boats. In the capital city, called Cacho, there are about 20,000 houses, with mud-walls and covered with thatch; a few are built with brick and roofed with pan-tiles. In each yard is a small arched building, like an oven, about six feet high, made of brick, which serves to secure their goods in case of fire. The principal streets are very wide, and paved with small stones. The king of Tonquin has three palaces in it, such as they are; and near them are stables for his horses and elephants. The house of the English manufactory is seated at the

north end of the city, fronting the river, and is the best in the city. The people, in general, are courteous, and civil to strangers; but the best men are proud, haughty, and ambitious; the soldiers insolent, and the poor thievish.

Their common drink is tea, but they make themselves merry with arrack. The language is spoken very much in the throat; and some of the words are pronounced through the teeth, and have a great resemblance to the Chinese. They have several mechanic arts and trades; such as smiths, carpenters, joiners, turners, weavers, tailors, potters, painters, money-changers, paper-makers, workers in lacker, and bell-founders. Their commodities are gold, musk, silks, calicoes, drugs of many sorts, woods for dying, lacquered wares, earthen wares, salt, aniseeds, and worm seeds. The lacquered ware is not inferior to that of Japan, which is accounted the best in the world. With all these merchandises one would expect the people to be very rich, but they are in general very poor; the chief trade being carried on by the Chinese, English, and Dutch. The goods imported, besides silver, are saltpetre, sulphur, English broad cloth, pepper, spices, and great guns.

Of the kingdom of Laos but little is known. It is said that this country is full of forests, and abounds in rice, fruits, and fish. The inhabitants are well made, robust, of an olive complexion, and mild in their disposition; but very superstitious, and much addicted to women. Their principal occupation is tilling the ground and fishing. The king shows himself but twice a-year, and has large revenues from the elephant's teeth found in his dominions. Their religion is a kind of idolatry, and much the same as in China. Langiona is the capital town.

The country of Cochin China is of much the same temperature with that of Tonquin, though rather milder, as lying nearer the sea. Like Tonquin it is annually overflowed, and consequently fruitful in rice, which requires no other manure than the mud left by the inundations. They have sugar-canes, and the same kinds of fruit common to other parts of India. The country produces no grapes, and therefore they drink a liquor brewed from rice. They have vast woods of mulberry-trees, which run up as fast as our hemp. Their silk is stronger than that of China, but not so fine. They have the best timber in the world, particularly a sort which abounds in the mountains, and is called the incorruptible-tree, because it never rots under earth or water, and is so solid that it serves for anchors. There are two kinds, black and red. The trees are very tall, straight, and so big, that two men can scarce fathom them. They have also on the mountains of the Kemois a tree of the most fragrant scent, which is supposed to be the same with ligium aloes. This being reckoned the best product of the country is engrossed by the king, and sold from 5 to 16 ducats per pound. It is highly valued both in China and Japan, where the logs of it are sold for 200 ducats a pound, to make pillars for the king and nobility; and among those Indians which continue to burn their dead, great quantities of it are used in the funeral piles. The young trees, called aquila or eagle-wood, are every one's property, which makes the old ones, called calamba, so scarce and dear. They have oak and large pines for the building of ships; so that this country is of the same use to China that Norway is to Britain. In general they

have the same kind of trees and plants that are to be met with in Tonquin. They have mines of gold as well as diamonds; but the last they do not value so highly as pearl. They also esteem their coral and amber very much. In all the provinces there are great granaries, filled with rice, in some of which that grain is kept upwards of 30 years. One of the greatest rarities of these parts, especially in grand entertainments, is a ragout, made of the eatable bird's nests, which some say are found only in Cochin-China, and others in four islands that lie south of its coast.

The merchants of Cambodia, Tonquin, China, Macao, Manila, Japan, and Malacca, trade to Cochin-China with plate, which they exchange for the commodities of the country. The Portuguese are the most favoured here of any Europeans. The Cochin-Chinese themselves, not being inclined to travel, seldom sail out of sight of their shore, but purchase many trifles from foreigners at great rates, particularly combs, needles, bracelets, glass pendants, &c. They are very fond of our hats, caps, girdles, shirts, and other clothes; and above all set a great value on coral. The country is said to have 700 miles of coast, with many large inlets of the sea, and above 60 convenient landing places; which, however, according to captain Hamilton, are but seldom visited by strangers.

The people of this country have a great affinity with those of Tonquin, with whom they have a common origin, and from whom they differ very little in their manners and customs, all of which they have, in a great manner, borrowed from the Chinese. The principal exports of the country are silks, sugar, ebony, and calamba wood; gold, in dust or in bars, which is sold for only ten times its weight in silver; and copper and porcelain, brought from China and Japan. From this country also are exported the birds' nests, esteemed such a delicacy at the table. They are found in four islands, situated near the coasts of Cochin-China, to the eastward of which are five other smaller ones, where are found prodigious numbers of turtles, the flesh of which is so delicate that the Tonquinese and people of Cochin-China frequently fight desperate battles, in order to take them from one another. The commodities which sell most readily in this country are saltpetre, sulphur, lead, fine cloth, and barred or flowered chintz. Pearls, amber, and coral were formerly in great request, but at present only the two last are saleable; and even these will not answer unless the beads of coral be round, well polished, and of a beautiful colour; the amber must also be extrememly clear, the beads of an equal size, and not bigger than a hazel.

The only money current in Cochin-China is that of Japan, which is paid and received by weight. The money of the country is of copper, and as large as our counters, of a round figure, and having an hole in the middle, by which the pieces may be strung like beads. Three hundred of these are put on one side, and as many on the other, which, in Cochin-China, pass for a thousand; because in 600 are found 10 times 60, which makes a century among almost all the people of the east. There is, however, scarce any country in which merchants are more apt to be deceived with regard to the value of money than Cochin-China; owing to the pieces being unequal in figure and quality, and the difficulty of determining their value, which is regulated only by a few characters stamped upon them. The dealers therefore must be at pains to have honest and skilful

people to ascertain the value of the pieces they receive; otherwise they run a great risk of being deceived in their value, as the Cochin-Chinese make a great merit of being able to cheat an European

Cambodia is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Laos; on the east by Cochin-China and Chiapa; and on the south and west by the gulph and kingdom of Siam; divided by a large river, called Mecon. The capital town is of the same name, seated on the western shore of the said river, about 150 miles north of its mouth. This country is annually overflowed in the rainy season, between June and October; and its productions and fruits are much the same with those usually found between the tropics.

Siam Proper, by some called Upper, to distinguish it from the Lower Siam, under which are often included Laos, Cambodia, and Malacca, is bounded on the north by the Birman empire and kingdom of Laos; on the east by Cambodia and Cochin-China; on the south by Malacca and the bay of Siam; and on the west by the ocean. But as the opinions of geographers are extremely various concerning the situation and extent of most of the inland countries of Asia and Africa, neither the extent nor boundaries of Siam are yet accurately known. By some it is supposed to extend 550 miles in length, and 250 miles in breadth; in some places it is not above 50 miles broad.

The winds blow here from the south, upon the coast of Siam, in March, April, and May; in April the rains begin, in May and June they fall almost without ceasing. In July, August, and September, the winds blow from the west, and, the rains continuing, the rivers overflow their banks nine or ten miles each side, and for more than 150 miles up the stream. At this time, and more particularly in July, the tides are so strong as to come up the river Menan as far as the city of Siam, which is situated 60 miles from its mouth; and sometimes as far as Louvo, which is 50 miles higher. The winds blow from the west and north in October, when the rain ceases. In November and December the winds blow dry from the north, and the waters being in a few days reduced to their antient channels, the tides become so insensible that the water is fresh at the mouth of the river. At Siam there is never more than one flood and one ebb in the space of 24 hours. In January the winds blow from the east, and in February from the east and south. When the wind is at east the currents set to the west; and on the contrary, when the wind is at west the currents run to the eastward.

As this country is situated near the tropic it must necessarily be very hot; but yet, as in other places nearly of the same latitude, when the sun is vertical and shines with a most intense heat, the inhabitants are so screened by the clouds, and the air is so refreshed by a deluge of rain that overflows the plains which the people chiefly inhabit, that the heat is very supportable. The coolest winds blow in December and January.

The vegetable produce of this country is chiefly rice and wheat, besides tropical and a few European fruits. The Siamese prepare the land for tillage as soon as the earth is sufficiently moistened by the floods. They plant their rice before the waters rise to any considerable height, and as they rise slowly the rice keeps pace with them, and the ear is always above the water. They reap their corn when the water retires, and sometimes

go in boats to cut it while the waters are upon the ground. They also sow rice in several parts of the kingdom that are not overflowed; and this is thought better tasted and will keep longer than the other; but they are forced to supply these fields constantly with water, while the rice is growing, from basins and ponds that lie about them.

They have no European fruits except oranges, lemons, citrons, and pomegranates. They have bananas, Indian figs, jaques, durions, mangoes, mangostans, tamarinds, ananas, and cocoa-nuts; they have also abundance of pepper and sugar-canes. The mountains are covered with trees, which make good masts. The vegetable of greatest use in the country is the bamboo, which grows chiefly in marshy soils, and is often found of a prodigious size. Cotton trees are found in great numbers; and others that yield capoc, a very fine cotton wool, but so short as to be unfit for spinning, though it answers very well for stuffing mattresses and pillows.

There is no country where elephants abound more than Siam, or where they are held in greater veneration. They have a few horses, sheep, and goats, besides oxen and buffaloes; but they have no good animal food except the flesh of hogs; their beef and mutton being of a very indifferent quality.

The Siamese are of small stature, but well proportioned; their complexions are swarthy; the faces of both the men and women are broad, and their foreheads, suddenly contracting, terminate in a point, as well as their chins. They have small black eyes, hollow jaws, large mouths, and thick pale lips. Their teeth are dyed black, their noses are short and round at the end, and they have large ears, which they think very beautiful. Their hair is thick and lank, and both sexes cut it so short that it reaches no lower than their ears; the women make it stand up on their foreheads; and the men shave their beards.

People of distinction wear a piece of calico, tied about their loins, that reaches down to their knees. The men bring up this cloth between their legs, and tuck it into their girdles, which gives it the appearance of a pair of breeches. They have also a muslin shirt, with a collar, with wide sleeves, no wristbands, and the bosom open. In winter they wear a piece of stuff or painted linen over their shoulders, like a mantle, and wind it about their arms.

The king of Siam is distinguished by wearing a vest of brocaded satin, with strait sleeves that reach down to the wrist, under such a shirt as we have just described, and it is unlawful for any subject to wear this dress, unless he receives it from the king. They wear slippers with piked toes turned up, but no stockings. The king sometimes presents a military vest to the generals; this is buttoned before, and reaches to the knees; but the sleeves are wide, and come no lower than the elbows. All the retinue of the king, either in war or in hunting, are clothed in red. The king wears a cap in the form of a sugar-loaf, encompassed by a coronet, or circle of precious stones; and those of his officers have a circle of gold, silver or vermilion gilt, to distinguish their quality, and these caps are fastened with a stay under the chin; they are only worn

when they are in the king's presence, or when they preside in courts of justice, or other extraordinary occasions. They have also hats for travelling; but in general few people cover their heads, notwithstanding the scorching heat of the sun.

The women also wrap a cloth about their middle, which hangs down to the calf of their legs. They cover their breasts with another cloth, the ends of which hang over their shoulders. But they have no garment corresponding to a shift, nor any covering for their heads but their hair. The common people are almost naked, and wear neither shoes nor slippers. The women wear as many rings on the three last fingers of each hand as they can keep on, and bracelets upon their wrists and ancles, with pendants in their ears, shaped like a pear.

For an inferior to stand before a superior is deemed insolent; and therefore slaves and people of inferior rank sit upon their heels, with their heads a little inclined, and their joined hands lifted up to their foreheads. In passing by a superior they bend their bodies, joining their hands, and lifting them toward their heads, in proportion to the respect they would show. When an inferior pays a visit he enters the room stooping, prostrates himself, and then remains upon his knees, sitting upon his heels, without speaking a word, till he is addressed by the person whom he visits; for he that is of the highest quality must always speak first. If a person of rank visit an inferior he walks upright, and the master of the house receives him at the door, and waits on him so far when he goes away, but never further.

The highest part of the house is esteemed the most honourable, and no person cares to lodge under another's feet. The Siamese, indeed, have but one story, but the rooms rise gradually, and the innermost, which are the highest, are always the most honourable. When the Siamese ambassador came to the French court, some of his retinue were lodged in a floor over the ambassador's head; but they no sooner knew it than they were struck with the greatest consternation, and ran down, tearing their hair at the thoughts of being guilty of what they considered as so unpardonable a crime.

The Siamese never permit such familiarities as are practised by gentlemen in Europe. Easiness of access and affability to an inferior is, in that part of the world, thought a sign of weakness; yet they take no notice of some things as would be looked upon as ill breeding among us; such as belching in company, which no man endeavours to prevent, or so much as holds his hand before his mouth. They have an extraordinary respect for the head, and it is the greatest affront to stroke or touch that of another person; nay their caps must not be used with too much familiarity: for when a servant carries it, it is put on a stick, and held above his head; and when the master stands still the stick is set down, it having a foot to stand upon. They also show their respect by lifting their hands to the head; and, therefore, when they receive a letter from any one for whom they have a great respect, they immediately hold it up to their heads, and sometimes lay it upon their heads.

They are esteemed an ingenious people, and though rather indolent than active in disposition, they are not addicted to the voluptuous vices, which often accompany a state of ease, being remarkably chaste and temperate, and even holding drunkenness in

abhorrence. They are, however, accounted insolent to their inferiors, and equally obsequious to those above them; the latter of which qualities appears to be particularly inculcated from their earliest youth. In general their behaviour is extremely modest, and they are averse to loquacity. Like the Chinese they avoid speaking in the first person; and when they address a lady it is always with some respectful epithet, insinuating personal accomplishments.

No man in this country learns any particular trade, but has a general knowledge of all that are commonly practised; and every one works six months for the king by rotation; at which time, if he should be found perfectly ignorant of the business he is set about, he is doomed to suffer the bastinado. The consequence of this burdensome service is, that no man endeavours to excel in his business, lest he should be obliged to practise it as long as he lives for the benefit of the crown.

The government of this country is extremely oppressive; the king being not only sovereign but proprietor of all the lands, and the chief merchant likewise; by which means he monopolizes almost the whole traffic, to the great prejudice of his subjects. The crown is said to be hereditary, but it is often transferred by revolutions, on account of the exorbitant abuse of power in those who exercise the royal office. In his palace the king is attended by women; who not only prepare his food and wait on him at table, but even perform the part of valets, and put on all his clothes, except his cap, which is considered as too sacred to be touched by any hand but his own. He shows himself to the people only twice a-year, when he distributes his alms to the talapoins or priests; and on these occasions he always appears in an elevated situation, or mounted on the back of an elephant. When he takes the diversion of hunting he is, as usual, attended by his women on foot, preceded by a guard of 200 men, who drive all the people from the roads through which they are to pass; and when the king stops, all his attendants fall upon their faces on the ground.

All their proceedings in law are committed to writing; and none is suffered to exhibit a charge against another without giving security to prosecute it, and answer the damages if he does not prove the fact against the person accused. When a person intends to prosecute another he draws up a petition, in which he sets forth his complaint, and presents it to the nai or head of the band to which he belongs, who transmits it to the governor; and if the complaint appears frivolous, the prosecutor, according to the laws of the country, should be punished; but the magistrates generally encourage prosecutions, on account of the perquisites they bring to their office.

Every thing being prepared for hearing, the parties are several days called into court, and persuaded to agree; but this appears to be only a matter of form. At length the governor appoints a day for all parties to attend; and being come into court, the clerk reads the process and opinion of his associates, and then the governor examines upon what reasons their opinions are founded; which being explained to him, he proceeds to pass judgment.

When sufficient proofs are wanting, they have recourse to an ordeal trial, like that of our Saxon ancestors: both the plaintiff and the defendant walk upon burning coals, and

he that escapes unhurt is adjudged to be in the right: sometimes the proof is made by putting their hands in boiling oil; and in both these trials, by some peculiar management, one or the other is said to remain unhurt. They have also a proof by water, in which he who remains longest under is esteemed innocent. They have another proof by swallowing pills, which their priests administer with severe imprecations; and the party who keeps them in his stomach without vomiting is thought to be innocent.

All these trials are made in the presence of the magistrates and people; and the king himself frequently directs them to be performed when crimes come before him by way of appeal. Sometimes he orders both the informer and prisoner to be thrown to the tygers: and the person who escapes by not being seized upon by these beasts is sufficiently justified.

They maintain the doctrine of transmigration, believing in a pre-existent state, and that they shall pass into other bodies, till they are sufficiently purified to be received into paradise. They believe likewise that the soul is material, but not subject to the touch; that it retains a human figure after quitting a body of that species; and that when it appears to persons with whom it was acquainted, which they suppose it to do, the wounds of one that has been murdered will then be visible. They are of opinion that no man will be eternally punished; that the good, after several transmigrations, will enjoy perpetual happiness: but that of those who are not reformed will be doomed to transmigration to all eternity. They believe in the existence of a Supreme Being; but the objects of their adoration are departed saints, whom they consider as mediators or intercessors for them; and to the honour of this numerous tribe both temples and images are erected.

The men of this country are allowed a plurality of women; but excepting one, who is his wife by contract, the others are only concubines, and their children deemed incapable of any legal inheritance. Previous to every nuptial contract an astrologer must be consulted, who calculates the nativity of the parties, and determines whether their union is likely to prove fortunate or otherwise. When his prognostication is favourable, the lover is permitted to visit his mistress three times; at the last of which interviews, the relations being present, the marriage portion is paid, when, without any religious ceremony performed, the nuptials are reckoned complete, and soon after consummated. A few days after the talapoin visits the married couple, sprinkles them with water, and repeats a prayer for their prosperity.

The practice in Siam respecting funerals is both to burn and bury the dead. The corpse being laid upon the pile, it is suffered to burn till a considerable part is consumed, when the remainder is interred in a burying-place contiguous to some temple. The reason they give for not burning it entirely to ashes is, that they supposed the deceased to be happy when part of his remains escape the fire. Instead of a tomb-stone they erect a pyramid over the grave. It formerly was the custom to bury treasure with the corpse; but longer experience evincing that the sacrilegious light in which robbing the graves was considered did not prevent the crime, they now discontinue the antient practice, and, instead of treasure, bury only painted papers and other trifles.

The two principal rivers are the Menan and the Mecon, which rise in the mountains of Tartary, and run to the south; the former, passing by the city of Siam, falls into the bay of the same name, in the 13° of N. lat.; and the latter, running through Laos and Cambodia, discharges itself into the Indian Ocean, in the 9° of N. Lat.

The capital of the country is Siam, called by the natives Siyothoya, situated in the 101° of E. lon. and the 14° of N. lat.; being almost encompassed by the branches of the river Menan. It is about 10 miles in circumference within the walls, but not a sixth part of the ground is occupied by buildings. In the vacant spaces there are near 300 pagodas or temples, round which are scattered the convents of the priests and their burying-places. The streets of the city are spacious, and some have canals running through them, over which are a great number of bridges. The houses stand on pillars of the bamboo cane, and are built of the same materials; the communication between different families during the winter season being carried on, as in other tropical countries, by means of boats. The grounds belonging to the several tenements are separated by a palisado, within which the cattle are housed, in barns erected likewise upon pillars, to preserve them from the annual inundation.

Malacca, the most southerly part of the great peninsula beyond the Ganges, is about 600 miles in length, and contains a kingdom of the same name. It is bounded by the kingdom of Siam on the north; by the bay of Siam and the Indian ocean on the east; and by the straits of Malacca, which separate it from the island of Sumatra, on the south-west. This country is more to the south than any other in the east Indies; and comprehends the towns and kingdoms of Patan, Pahan, Tgohor, Pera Queda, Borkelon, Ligor; and, to the north, the town and kingdom of Tanassery, where the Portuguese formerly carried on a great trade. This last belongs to the Birmen. The people of Malacca are in general subject so the Dutch, who possess all the strong places on the coast, and compel them to trade on their own terms, excluding all other nations of Europe from having any commerce with the natives.

The Malays are governed by the feudal laws. A chief, who has the title of king or sultan, issues his commands to his great vassals, who have other vassals in subjection to them in a similar manner. A small part of the nation live independent, under the title of oranicai or noble, and sell their services to those who pay them best; while the body of the nation is composed of slaves, and lives in perpetual servitude.

The generality of these people are restless, fond of navigation, war, plunder, emigrations, colonies, desperate enterprises, adventures, and gallantry. They talk incessantly of their honour and their bravery, whilst they are universally considered, by those with whom they have any intercourse, as the most treacherous, ferocious people on earth. This ferocity which the Malays qualify under the name of courage, is so well known to the European companies who have settlements in the Indies, that they have universally agreed in prohibiting the captains of their ships, who may put into the Malay islands, from taking on board any seamen from that nation, except in the greatest distress, and then on no account to exceed two or three. It is not in the least uncommon for a handful of these horrid savages suddenly to embark, attack a vessel by surprise, massacre

the people, and make themselves masters of her. Malay batteaux, with 24 or 30 men, have been known to board European ships of 30 or 50 guns, in order to take possession of them, and murder with their poniards great part of the crew. Those who are not slaves go always armed; they would think themselves disgraced if they went abroad without their poniards, which they call crit. As their lives are a perpetual round of agitation and tumult, they cannot endure the long flowing garments in use among other Asiatics. Their habits are exactly adapted to their shapes, and loaded with a multitude of buttons, which fasten them close to their bodies.

The country possessed by the Malays is in general very fertile. It abounds with odoriferous woods, such as the aloes, the sandal, and the cassia. The ground is covered with flowers of the greatest fragrance, of which there is a perpetual succession throughout the year. There are abundance of mines of the most precious metals, said to be richer even than those of Brazil or Peru, and in some places are mines of diamonds. The sea also abounds with excellent fish, together with ambergris, pearls, and those delicate birds' nests so much in request in China.

Notwithstanding all this plenty, however, the Malays are miserable. The culture of the lands, abandoned to slaves, is fallen into contempt. These wretched labourers, dragged incessantly from their rustic employments by their restless masters, who delight in war and maritime enterprises, have never time or resolution to give the necessary attention to the labouring of their grounds; of consequence, the lands, for the most part, are uncultivated, and produce no kinds of grain for the subsistence of the inhabitants. The sago tree indeed supplies in part the defect of grain. It is a species of the palm tree, which grows naturally in the woods, to the height of about 20 or 30 feet; its circumference being sometimes six feet. Its ligneous bark is about an inch in thickness, and covers a multitude of long fibres, which, being interwoven one with another, envelope a mass of a gummy kind of meal. As soon as this tree is ripe, a whitish dust, which transpires through the pores of the leaves, and adheres to their extremities, indicates that the trees are in a state of maturity. The Malays then cut them down near the root, divide them into several sections, which they split into quarters; they scoop out the mass of mealy substance, which is enveloped by and adheres to the fibres; they dilute it in pure water, and then pass it through a straining bag of fine cloth, in order to separate it from the fibres. When this paste has lost part of its moisture by evaporation, the Malays throw it into a kind of earthen vessel, of different shapes, where they allow it to dry and harden. Their paste is wholesome, nourishing food, and preserves for many years.

Malacca, the capital, is situated in a flat country, close to the sea. The walls and fortifications are founded on a solid rock, and are carried up to a great height; the lower part of them is washed by the sea at every tide; and on the land side is a wide canal or ditch, cut from the sea to the river, which makes it an island. In 1641 it was taken from the Portuguese by the Dutch, since which time it has continued in their possession. In this city there are a great many broad streets; but they are very badly paved. The houses are tolerable well built, and some of them have gardens behind or

on one side. The inhabitants consist of a few Dutch, many Malayans, Moors, Chinese, and other Indians, who are kept in awe by a fortress, which is separated from the city by a river, and by good walls and bastions, as well as by strong gates, and a draw-bridge that is on the eastern side. The city is well situated for trade and navigation.

The Birman empire was little known to Europeans till colonel Symes performed his embassy to that court, in the year 1795, and afterwards published an ample and excellent account of the country into which he had travelled. The extent of this empire he considers as uncertain; but it comprehends the antient kingdoms of Ava, Pegu, and Aracan, the country of Cassay, and the territories of several Chobwas or little princes, formerly independent.

The climate of every part of the empire which he visited bore testimony to its salubrity, by the best possible criterion, the appearance and vigour of the natives. The seasons are regular, and the extremes of heat and cold are seldom experienced; at least the duration of that intense heat, which immediately precedes the commencement of the rainy season, is so short that it incommodes but for a very little time.

The soil of the southern provinces of the Birman empire is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest parts of Bengal. Farther northward the country becomes irregular and mountainous; but the plains and valleys, particularly near the river, are exceedingly fruitful; they yield good wheat, and the various kinds of small grain which grow in Hindostan; as likewise legumes, and most of the esculent vegetables of India. Sugar-cane, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and the different tropical fruits in perfection, are all indigenous products of this favoured land.

Their forests produce, besides the teak tree, which is exceedingly useful for ship building, almost every description of timber that is known in India.

The kingdom of Ava abounds in minerals. Six days journey from Bamoo, near the frontiers of China, there are mines of gold and silver, rubies and sapphires, at present open on a mountain near the Keenduein, called Wooboloo-taun; but the most valuable, and those which produce the finest jewels are in the vicinity of the capital nearly opposite to Keoum-meoum. Precious stones are found in several other parts of the empire. The inferior minerals, such as contain iron, tin, lead, antimony, arsenic, sulphur, &c. are met with in great abundance; amber, of a consistence unusually pure and pellucid, is dug up in large quantities near the river; gold likewise is discovered in the sandy beds of streams, which descend from the mountains. Between the Keenduem and the Irrawaddy, to the northward, there is a small river called Shoe Lieu Kioup, or the Stream of Golden Sand.

Diamonds and emeralds are not produced in any part of the Ava empire; but it affords amethysts, garnets, very beautiful chrysolites, jasper, loadstone, and marble; the quarries of the latter are only a few miles from Ummerapoora; it is equal in quality to the finest marble of Italy, and admits of a polish which renders it almost transparent. Blocks of any size that it is possible to transport might be procured; but the sale is prohibited; nor is it allowed to be carried away without a special licence. Images of

Gaudma being chiefly composed of this material, it is, on that account, held sacred.

Birmans may not purchase the marble in mass, but are suffered, and indeed encouraged to buy figures of the deity ready made. Exportation of their gods out of the kingdom is strictly forbidden. The city of Chagain is the principal manufactory of these marble divinities.

An extensive trade is carried on between the capital of the Birman dominions and Yunan in China. The principal article of export from Ava is cotton, of which colonel Symes was informed there are several kinds; one of a brown colour, of which nankeens are made, the other white like the cotton of India. He did not see any of the former. This commodity is transported up the Irrawaddy in large boats, as far as Bamoo, where it is bartered at the common jee or mart, with Chinese merchants, and conveyed by the latter, partly by land and partly by water, into the Chinese dominions. Amber, ivory, precious stones, beetle nut, and the edible nests, brought from the eastern Archipelago, are also articles of commerce: in return the Birmans procure raw and wrought silks, velvets, gold leaf, preserves, paper, and some utensils of hardware.

The commerce between the capital and the southern parts of the empire is facilitated by the noble river that waters the country; its principal objects are the necessaries of life. several thousand boats are annually employed in transporting rice from the lower provinces, to supply Ummerapoora and the northern districts; salt and gnapee may likewise be reckoned under the same head. Articles of foreign importation are mostly conveyed up the Irrawaddy; a few are introduced by way of Arracan, and carried over the mountains on the heads of coolies or labourers; European broad cloth, a small quantity of hardware, coarse Bengal muslins, Cossembuzar silk handkerchiefs, China ware, which will not admit of land carriage, and glass, are the principal commodities. Cocoa nuts also, brought from the Nicobar islands, where they are of uncommon excellence, are looked upon as a delicacy, and bear a high price: merchants carry down silver, lac, precious stones, and some other articles to no great amount. A considerable sum of money is annually laid out at the capital, in the purchase of marble statues of Gaudma, which are all fabricated at Chagain, opposite to Ava-haung, or antient Ava: they are not permitted to be made at any other place.

The Birmans, like the Chinese, have no coin; silver in bullion and lead are the current monies of the country; weight and purity are of course the standard of value, and in the ascertainment of both the natives are exceedingly scrupulous and expert. What foreigners call a tackal, properly kiat, is the most general piece of silver in circulation; it weighs 10 penny-weights, 10 grains, and three-fourths; its subdivisions are the tubbee, two of which make one moo; two moo one math; four math one tackal; and 100 tackal compose one viss. Money scales and weights are all fabricated at the capital, where they are stamped, and afterwards circulated throughout the empire; the use of any others is prohibited.

There is no country of the the east in which the royal establishment is arranged with more minute attention than in the Birman court; it is splendid without being wasteful,

and numerous without confusion ; the most distinguished members when colonel Symes was at the capital were, the sovereign ; his principal queen, entitled Nandoh Praw, by whom he has no sons ; his second wife, Myack Nandoh, by whom he has two sons ; the Engy Teekien, or prince royal, and Pee Teekien, or prince of Prome. The princes of Tongho, Bassian, and Pagahm, are by favourite concubines. Meedah Praw is a princess of high dignity, and mother of the chief queen. The prince royal is married, and has a son and two daughters, all young ; the son takes precedence of his uncles, the crown descending to the male heirs in a direct line. These were the principal personages of the Birman royal family.

Next in rank to the princes of the blood royal are the Woongees, or chief ministers of state. The established number is four, but the place of one has long been vacant ; these form the great ruling council of the nation ; they sit into the Lotoo, or imperial hall of consultation every day, except on the Birman sabbath, from twelve till three or four o'clock or later, as there happens to be business ; they issue mandates to the Maywoons or viceroys of the different provinces ; they controul every department of the state, and, in fact, govern the empire, subject always to the pleasure of the king, whose will is absolute and power undefined.

To assist in the administration of affairs, four officers, called Woondocks, are associated with the Woongees, but of far inferior authority ; they sit in the Lotoo, in a deliberative capacity, having no vote ; they give their opinions, and may record their dissent from any measure that is proposed, but the Woongees decide ; the Woondocks, however, are frequently employed to carry into execution business of great public importance.

Four Attawoons, or ministers of the interior, possess a degree of influence that sometimes counteracts with success the views and wishes of the Woongees ; these the king selects to be his privy counsellors, from their talents, and the opinion he entertains of their integrity, they have access to him at all times ; a privilege which the principal Woongee does not enjoy.

There are also four chief secretaries, four notaries, four masters of the ceremonies, and nine readers, as well as several other officers of distinction, who bear no ostensible share in the administration of public affairs.

In the Birman government there are no hereditary dignities or employments ; all honours and offices, on the demise of the possessor, revert to the crown.

The tsaloe or chain is the badge of the order of nobility, of which there are different degrees, distinguished by the number of strings or small chains that compose the ornament ; these strings are fastened by bosses where they unite : three of open chain work is the lowest rank : three of neatly twisted wire is the next ; then of six, of nine, and of 12 ; no subject is ever honoured with a higher degree than 12 ; the king alone wears 24.

The manners of the Birmans bear a considerable resemblance to those of the inhabitants of Siam. They have all the politeness of the Chinese, without their burdensome load of ceremonies. At Rangoon, their principal port, foreigners are to be met with of various different nations, who all enjoy the most perfect liberty in matters of religion The country, though naturally fertile, is so thinly peopled in consequence of a succession

of wars, that the population is estimated at but about 17,000,000, while the ground, in many places, lays uncultivated, and tygers, elephants, and other wild beasts of India, range at large.

Umrapoora, the capital, and every other part of the empire, is adorned with a vast number of temples, erected in a singular and magnificent style of architecture. The cities of Ava and Pegu are both of them in ruins.

Tibet is a country of steep and inaccessible mountains, whose summits are crowned with eternal snow; they are intersected with deep valleys, through which pour numberless torrents, that increase in their course, and, at last gaining the plains, lose themselves in the great rivers of Bengal. These mountains are covered down their sides with forests of stately trees, of various sorts, some (such as pines, &c.) of which are known in Europe; others such as are peculiar to the country and climate. The valleys and sides of the hills, which admit of cultivation, are not unfruitful, but produce crops of wheat, barley, and rice. The inhabitants are a stout and warlike people, of a copper complexion, in size rather above the middle European stature, hasty and quarrelsome in their temper, and addicted to the use of spiritous liquors, but honest in their dealing, robbery by violence being almost unknown among them. The chief city is Lassey Soddein situated on the Patchoo. Tibet begins properly from the top of the great ridge of the Caucasus, and extends from thence in breadth to the confines of Great Tartary, and perhaps to some of the dominions of the Russian empire. The woods, which every where cover the mountains in Bantan, are here totally unknown; and, except a few straggling trees near the villages, nothing of the sort is to be seen. The climate is extremely severe and rude. At Chammanning, although it be in latitude 31° 39. in the middle of April the standing waters were all frozen, and heavy showers of snow perpetually fell. This, no doubt, must be owing to the great elevation of the country, and to the vast frozen space over which the north wind blows, uninterruptedly from the pole, through the vast deserts of Siberia and Tartary, till it is stopped by this formidable wall.

The Tibetians are of a smaller size than their southern neighbours, and of a less robust make. Their complexions are also fairer, and many of them have even a ruddiness in their countenances, unknown in the other climates of the East. Those whom Mr. Bogle saw at Calcutta appeared to have quite the Tartar face. They are of a mild and cheerful temper; the higher ranks are polite and entertaining in conversation, in which they never mix either strained compliments or flattery. The common people, both in Boutan and Tibet, are clothed in coarse woollen stuffs, of their own manufacture, lined with such skins as they can procure; but the better orders of men are dressed in European cloth, or China silk lined with the finest Siberian furs. The use of linen is entirely unknown among them. The chief food of the inhabitants is the milk of their cattle, prepared into cheese, or mixed with the flour of a coarse barley or of pease, the only grain which their soil produces; and even these are in a scanty proportion; but they are furnished with rice and wheat from Bengal and other countries in their neighbourhood. They also are supplied with fish, from the rivers in their own own and their neighbouring

provinces, salted and sent into the interior parts. They have no want of animal food, from the cattle, sheep, and hogs, which are raised on their hills; and are not destitute of game. They have a singular method of preparing their mutton, by exposing the carcase entire, after the bowels are taken out, to the sun and bleak north winds, which blow in the months of August and September, without frost, and so dry up the juices and parch the skin, that the meat will keep uncorrupted for the year round. This they generally eat raw, without any other preparation.

The religion and political constitution of this country, which are intimately blended together, will be treated of in another chapter. A peculiar kind of polygamy subsists among them, several brothers having frequently the same wife. The manner of bestowing their dead is also singular; they neither put them in the ground, like the Europeans, nor burn them, like the Hindoos; but expose them on the bleak pinnacle of some neighbouring mountain, to be devoured by wild beasts and birds of prey, or wasted away by time, and the vicissitudes of the weather in which they lie. The mangled carcases and bleached bones lie scattered about; and amidst this scene of horrors, some miserable old wretch, man or woman, lost to all feelings but those of superstition, generally sets up an abode, to perform the dismal office of receiving the bodies, assigning each a place and gathering up the remains when too widely dispersed.

The language spoken in Tibet is different from that of the Tartars. The astronomers are acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies, and able to calculate eclipses: but the lamas are generally ignorant; few of them can read, much less understand their antient books.

CHAPTER V.

The East Indian Islands.

THESE islands may be divided into three groups ; the Sunda islands, the Moluccas with the adjacent islands, and the Philippines.

The Sunda islands comprehend Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Bally, Banca, to which may be added the Andamans, the Nicobar isles, the Anambas, Natuna, and several others.

Proceeding in the order in which they are situated, we begin with the Andamans, which are described by colonel Symes, in his account of the embassy to Ava. He states that all the voyagers have related of uncivilized life, seems to fall short of the barbarism of the people of Andaman. The ferocious natives of New Zealand, or the shivering, half-animated savages of Terra del Fuego, are in a relative state of confinement, compared to these islanders. The population of the Great Andaman, and all its dependencies does not, according to captain Stokoe, exceed 2000 or 2500 souls. These are dispersed in small societies along the coasts, or on the lesser islands within the harbour, never penetrating deeper than the skirts of the forests, which hold out little inducement for them to enter, as they contain no animals to supply them with food. Their sole occupation seems to be that of climbing rocks, or roving along the margin of the sea, in quest of a precarious meal of fish, which, during the tempestuous season, they often seek for in vain.

The Andamaners are not more favoured in the conformation of their bodies, than in the endowments of their mind. In stature they seldom exceed five feet ; their limbs are disproportionably slender, their bellies protuberant, with high shoulders, and large heads ; and, strange to find in this part of the world, they are a degenerate race of negroes, with woolly hair, flat noses, and thick lips ; their eyes are small and red, their skin of a deep sooty black, whilst their countenances exhibit the extreme of wretchedness : a horrid mixture of famine and ferocity. They go quite naked, and are insensible of any shame from exposure.

The few implements they use are of the rudest texture ; a bow, from four to five feet long, the string made of the fibre of a tree or a slip of bamboo, with arrows of reed, headed with fish bone, or wood hardened in the fire, is their principal weapon. Besides this they carry a spear of heavy wood, sharply pointed, and a shield made of bark, to defend themselves from the assaults of their enemies ; for even these poor wretches have rights to assert and dignities to maintain : necessity has taught them an expert management of their arms, on which they rely for subsistence ; happily for them, their numerous bays and creeks abound with fish, which they shoot and spear with surprising dexterity. They are said also to use a small hand-net, made of the filaments of bark ; the fish, when caught, is put into a wicker basket, which they carry on their backs. Having kindled a fire, they throw the food on the coals, and devour it half broiled. A few diminutive

swine are to be found in the skirts of the forests, and among the mangrove thickets in the low grounds; but these are very scarce, and are probably the progeny of a stock left by former navigators. When a native has the good fotune to slay one, he carefully preserves the scull and teeth to ornament his hut. They cross the bays, and go to fish either in canoes formed of a hollow tree, or on rafts of bamboo, which they direct by paddles. Their habitations display little more ingenuity than the dens of wild beasts; four sticks, stuck in the ground, are bound together at the top, and fastened transversely by others, to which branches of trees are suspended; an opening is left on one side, just large enough to admit of entrance: leaves compose their bed. Being much incommoded by insects, their first occupation in a morning is to plaister their bodies all over with mud, which, hardening in the sun, forms an impenetrable armour; they paint their woolly head with red ochre and water; when thus completely dressed, a more hideous appearance is not to be found in human form.

An English colony has been lately established on the large Andaman.

Of the Nicobar islands but little is known. Mr. Hamilton has, however, in the Asiatic Researches, given some interesting information respecting the northernmost of these, which is called Carnicobar. This island, he says, is low of a round figure, about 40 miles in circumference, and appears at a distance as if entirely covered with trees: however there are several well-cleared and delightful spots upon it. The soil is a black kind of clay, and marshy. It produces in great abundance, and with little care, most of the tropical fruits, such as pine-apples, plaintains, papayas, cocoa-nuts, and areca-nuts, also excellent yams, and a root called cachu. The only four footed animals upon the island are hogs, dogs, large rats, and an animal of the lizard kind, but large, called by the natives tolonqui; these frequently carry off fowls and chickens. The only kind of poultry are hens, and those not in great plenty. There are abundance of snakes of many different kinds, and the inhabitants frequently die of their bites. The timber upon the island is of many sorts, in great plenty, and some of it remarkably large, affording excellent materials for building or repairing ships.

The natives are low in stature, very well made, and surprisingly active and strong: they are copper coloured, and their features have a cast of the Malay, quite the reverse of elegant. The women, in particular, are extremely ugly. The men cut their hair short, and the women have their heads shaved quite bare, and wear no covering but a short petticoat, made of a sort of rush or dry grass, which reaches half way down the thigh. This grass is not interwoven, but hangs round the person something like the thatching of a house. The men wear nothing but a narrow strip of cloth about the middle. The ears of both sexes are pierced when young; and, by squeezing into the holes large plugs of wood, or hanging heavy weights of shells, they contrive to render them wide and disagreeable to look at. They are naturally disposed to be good humoured and gay, and are very fond of sitting at table with Europeans; where they eat every thing that is set before them; and they eat most enormously. They do not care much for wine, but will drink bumpers of arrack as long as they can see. A great part of their time is spent in feasting and dancing. When a feast is held at any village, every one that chooses goes

uninvited, for they are strangers to ceremony. At those feasts they eat immense quantities of pork, which is their favourite food. Their hogs are remarkably fat, being fed upon the cocoa-nut kernel and sea water; indeed all their domestic animals, fowls, dogs, &c. are fed upon the same. They have likewise plenty of small sea-fish, which they strike very dexterously with lances, wading into the sea about knee-deep. They are sure of killing a very small fish at 10 or 12 yards distance. They eat the pork almost raw, giving it only a hasty grill over a quick fire. They roast a fowl by running a piece of wood through it by way of spit, and holding it over a brisk fire until the feathers are burnt off, when it is ready for eating in their taste. They never drink water; only cocoa-nut milk, and a liquor called soura, which oozes from the cocoa-nut tree after cutting off the young sprouts or flowers. This they suffer to ferment before it is used, and then it is intoxicating; to which quality they add much by their method of drinking it, by sucking it slowly through a small straw. After eating, the young men and women, who are fancifully dressed with leaves, go to dancing; and the old people surround them, smoking tobacco and drinking soura. The dancers, while performing, sing some of their tunes, which are far from wanting harmony, and to which they keep exact time. Of musical instruments they have only one kind and that the simplest. It is a hollow bamboo, about two feet and a half long, and three inches in diameter; along the outside of which there is stretched, from end to end, a single string, made of the threads of a split cane, and the place under the string is hollowed a little, to prevent it from touching. This instrument is played upon in the same manner as a guitar. It is capable of producing but few notes; the performer, however, makes it speak harmoniously, and generally accompanies it with his voice.

Their houses are generally built upon the beach, in villages of 15 or 20 houses each; and each house contains a family of 20 persons and upwards. These habitations are raised upon wooden pillars, about 10 feet from the ground: they are round, and, having no windows, are like bee-hives covered with thatch. The entry is through a trap-door below, where the family mount by a ladder, which is drawn up at night. This manner of building is intended to secure the houses from being infested with snakes and rats; and for that purpose the pillars are bound round with a smooth kind of leaf, which prevents animals from being able to mount; besides which, each pillar has a broad, round flat piece of wood near the top of it, the projecting of which effectually prevents the further progress of such vermin as may have passed the leaf. The flooring is made of thin strips of bamboos, laid at such distances from one another as to leave free admission for light and air; and the inside is neatly finished, and decorated with fishing lances, nets, &c.

When a man dies, all his live stock, cloth, hatchets, fishing lances, and, in short, every moveable thing he possessed, is buried with him; and his death is mourned by the whole village. His wife must conform to custom by having a joint cut off from one of her fingers; and if she refuse this, she must submit to have a deep notch cut in one of the pillars of her house.

Sumatra, the most western of the Sunda islands, constitutes on that side the boundary

of the Eastern Archipelago. Its general direction is nearly north-west and south-east. The equator divides it into almost equal parts; the one extremity being in 5° 39′ N. and the other in 5° 56′ S. lat. Achcen Head, at the north extremity of the island, is in longitude 95° 34′ east. It lies exposed on the south-west side to the Indian Ocean; the north point stretches into the bay of Bengal; to the north-east it is divided from the peninsula of Malacca by the straits of that name; to the east by the straits of Banca, from the island of that name; to the south-east by the commencement of what are called the Chinese Seas; and on the south by the straits of Sunda, which separate it from the island of Java. It is about 900 miles in length, but from 100 to 150 only in breadth. No account had been given of this island by any Englishman till the year 1778, when Mr. Charles Miller (son of the late botanical gardener) published an account of the manners of a particular district, in the 68th volume of the Philosophical Transactions. These were the Buttas, a people who live in the interior parts, called the Cassia Country. They differ from all the other inhabitants in language, manners, and customs. They are said to eat the prisoners whom they take in war, and hang up their skulls as trophies in their houses. He observes, however, that human flesh is eaten by them in terrorem, and not as common food, though they prefer it to all others, and speak with peculiar raptures of the soles of the feet and palms of the hands. They expressed much surprise that the white people did not kill, much less eat their prisoners. From this country the greatest part of cassia that is sent to Europe is procured. It abounds also with camphire trees, which constitute the common timber in use; and in these trees the camphire is found native, in a concrete form. It is remarkable that in this state it is sold to the Chinese at the price of 250 or 300*l.* per cwt.; but these dexterous artists contrive to furnish the Europeans with it at about a quarter of that price. In 1783, Mr. Marsden, who had been secretary to the president and council of Fort Malborough, published a history of Sumatra, with very copious particulars of the island. He represents it as surpassed by few in the beautiful indulgencies of nature. A chain of high mountains runs through its whole extent; the ranges in many parts being double and treble; their altitude, though great, is not sufficient to occasion their being covered with snow during any part of the year. Between these ridges are extensive plains, considerably elevated above the surface of the maritime lands. In these the air is cool; and, from this advantage, they are esteemed the most eligible portion of the country, are the best inhabited, and the most cleared from woods, which elsewhere, in general, throughout Sumatra, cover both hills and valleys with eternal shade. Here too are found many large and beautiful lakes, that facilitate much the communication between the different parts. The heat of the air is far from being so intense as might be expected from a country occupying the middle of the Torrid Zone; and it is more temperate than many regions within the Tropics; the thermometer, at the most sultry hour, about two in the afternoon, generally fluctuating between 82 and 85 degrees. Mr. Marsden divides the inhabitants into Malays, Achenese, Battas, Lampoons, and Rejangs; and he takes the latter as his standard of description, with respect to the persons, manners, and customs of the inhabitants. They are rather below the middle stature; their bulk in

proportion ; their limbs, for the most part, slight, but well shaped, and particularly small at the wrists and ancles ; and upon the whole they are gracefully formed. Their hair is strong and of a shining black. The men are beardless, great pains being taken to render them so when boys, by rubbing their skins with a kind of quick lime. Their complexion is properly yellow, wanting the red tinge that constitutes a copper or tawny colour. They are in general lighter than the Mestees, or half-breed of the rest of India ; those of the superior class, who are not exposed to the rays of the sun, and particularly their women of rank, approaching to a degree of fairness. If beauty consisted in this one quality, some of them would surpass even our brunettes in Europe. The major part of the females are ugly, many of them even to disgust ; yet among them are some whose appearance is strikingly beautiful ; whatever composition of persons, features, and complexion, that sentiment may be the result of. Some of the inhabitants of the hilly parts are observed to have the swelled neck or goitre ; but they attempt no remedy for it, as these wens are consistent with the highest health. The rites of marriage among the Sumatrans consist simply in joining the hands of the parties, and pronouncing them man and wife, without much ceremony, excepting the entertainment, which is given on the occasion by the father of the girl. The customs of the Sumatrans permit their having as many wives as they can purchase or afford to maintain ; but it is extremely rare that an instance occurs of their having more than one, and that only among a few of the chiefs. This continence they owe in some measure to their poverty. The dictates of frugality are more powerful with them than the irregular calls of appetite, and make them decline an indulgence from which their law does not restrain them. Mothers carry their children, not on the arm as our nurses do, but straddling on the hip, and usually supported by a cloth, which ties in a knot on the opposite shoulder. The children are nursed but little, are not confined by any swathing or bandages ; and being suffered to roll about the floor, soon learn to walk and shift for themselves. When cradles are used, they swing, suspended from the ceiling of the room.

The Sumatrans are so fond of cock fighting that a father, on his death-bed, has been known to desire his son to take the first opportunity of matching a cock for a sum equal to his whole property ; under a blind conviction of its being invulnerable. When a cock is killed or runs, the other must have sufficient spirit and vigour left to peck at him three times, on his being held up to him for that purpose, or it becomes a drawn battle ; and sometimes an experienced cocker will place the head of his vanquished bird in such an uncouth situation as to terrify the other, and render him unable to give this proof of victory.

The wild beasts of Sumatra are tygers, elephants, rhinoceroses, bears, and monkeys. The tygers prove to the inhabitants, both in their journeys and even their domestic occupations, most destructive enemies. The number of people annually slain by these rapacious tyrants of the woods is almost incredible. Whole villages have been depopulated by them ; yet, from a superstitious prejudice, it is with difficulty they are prevailed upon, by a large reward, which the India Company offers, to use methods of destroying them, till they have sustained some particular injury in their own family or kindred.

The size and strength of the species which prevails in this island is prodigious. They are said to break, with a strike of their fore paw, the leg of a horse or buffalo; and the largest prey they kill is, without difficulty, dragged by them into the woods. This they usually perform on the second night; being supposed, on the first, to gratify themselves with sucking the blood only. Time is, by this delay, afforded to prepare for their destruction, either by shooting them, or placing a vessel of water, strongly impregnated with arsenic, near the carcase, which is fastened to a tree, to prevent its being carried off. The tyger, having satiated himself with the flesh, is prompted to assuage his thirst with the tempting liquor at hand, and perishes in the indulgence. Their chief subsistence is, most probably, the unfortunate monkeys with which the woods abound. They are described as alluring them to their fate by a fascinating power, similar to what has been supposed of the snake; and says Mr. Marsden, "I am not incredulous enough to treat the idea with contempt, having myself observed, that when an alligator or a crocodile comes under an overhanging branch of a tree, the monkeys, in a state of alarm and distraction, crowd to the extremity, and, chattering and trembling, approach nearer and nearer to the amphibious monster, that waits to devour them as they drop, which their fright and number render almost unavoidable." These alligators likewise occasion the loss of many inhabitants, frequently destroying the people as they bathe in the river, according to their regular custom, and which the perpetual evidence of the risk attending it cannot deter them from. A superstitious idea of their sanctity also preserves them from molestation, although with a hook of sufficient strength they may be taken without much difficulty. The other animals of Sumatra are buffaloes, a small kind of horses, goats, hogs, deer, bullocks, and hog-deer. This last is an animal somewhat smaller than a rabbit, the head resembling that of a hog, and its shanks and feet like those of the deer. The bezoar-stone found on this animal has been valued at ten times its weight in gold; it is of a dark brown colour, smooth on the outside; and the coat being taken off, it appears still darker, with strings running underneath the coat: it will swim on the top of the water. If it be infused in any liquid, it makes it extremely bitter. The virtues usually attributed to this stone are cleansing the stomach, creating an appetite, and sweetening the blood.

Of birds they have a greater variety than of beasts. The coo-ow or Sumatran pheasant is a bird of uncommon beauty. They have storks of a prodigious size, parrots, dunghill fowls, ducks, the largest cocks in the world, wood-pigeons, doves, and a great variety of small birds, different from ours, and distinguished by the beauty of their colours. Of their reptiles they have lizards, flying-lizards, and cameleons. The island swarms with insects, and their varieties are no less extraordinary than their numbers. Rice is the only grain that grows in the country; they have sugar-canes, beans, pease, radishes, yams, potatoes, pumkins, and several kinds of pot herbs unknown in Europe; and here are to be found most of the fruit to be met with in other parts of the East Indies in the greatest perfection. Indigo, brasil wood, two species of the bread-fruit tree, pepper, benjamin, coffee, and cotton, are likewise the produce of this island, as well as cassia and camphire above-mentioned. Here also is the cabbage tree, and the silk cotton tree,

and the forest contains a great variety of valuable species of wood, as ebony, pine, sandal, eagle or aloes, teak, manchineel, and iron wood, and also the banyan tree. Gold, tin, iron, copper, and lead, are found in the country; and the former is supposed to be as plentiful here as in Peru or Mexico. The finest gold and gold-dust are found in the country of Limong, immediately contiguous to the presidency of Fort Marlborough: to which the merchants repair annually for the purchase of opium and such other articles as they may be in want of, and give for them gold, of so pure a nature, as to contain little or no alloy. The native indolence of the Malay disposition, prevents them from collecting more than is sufficient, to supply the simple wants of a race of men as yet unenlightened by civilization and science, and ignorant of the full extent of the advantages of the country inhabited by them. The roads leading to this golden country are almost impervious; affording only a scanty path to a single traveller, where whole nights must be passed in the open air, exposed to the malignant influence of a hostile climate, in a country infested by the most ferocious wild beasts. These are circumstances that have hitherto checked curiosity; but perseverance and studied precaution will surmount the obstacles they oppose, and such discoveries might be made as might amply compensate for the difficulties leading to them. The gold-merchants, who come from the neighbouring and less rich countries, give such accounts of the facility of procuring gold as border nearly on the marvellous, and would be altogether incredible, if great quantities of that metal, produced by them, did not, in some degree, evince the certainty of their accounts.

Java is situated to the south of Borneo, and south-east from the peninsula of Malacca, having Sumatra lying before it, from which it is separated by a narrow passage, now so famous in the world by the name of the Straits of Sunda. The country is mountainous and woody in the middle; but a flat coast, full of bogs and marshes, renders the air unhealthful. It produces pepper, indigo, sugar, tobacco, rice, coffee, cocoa-nuts, plantains, cardamons, and other tropical fruits. Gold also but in no great quantities, hath been found in it. It is diversified by many mountains, woods, and rivers; in all which nature has very bountifully bestowed her treasures. The mountains are many of them so high as to be seen at the distance of three or four leagues. That which is called the Blue Mountain is by far the highest of them all, and seen the farthest off at sea. They have frequent and very terrible earthquakes on this island, which shake the city of Batavia and places adjacent to such a degree that the fall of the houses is expected every moment. The waters in the road are excessively agitated, insomuch that their motion resembles that of a boiling pot: and, in some places, the earth opens, which affords a strange and terrible spectacle. The inhabitants are of opinion, that these earthquakes proceed from the mountain Parang, which is full of sulphur, saltpetre, and bitumen. The fruits and plants of this island are all, in their several kinds, excellent and almost out of number. There are abundance of forests scattered over it, in which are all kinds of wild beasts, such as buffaloes, tygers, rhinoceroses, and wild horses, with an infinite variety of serpents, some of them of an enormous size. Crocodiles are prodigiously large in Java, and are found chiefly about the mouths of rivers; for being amphibious

animals, they delight mostly in marshes and savannahs. This creature, like the tortoise, lays its eggs in hot sands, without taking any further care of them ; and the sun hatches them at the proper season, when they run instantly into the water. There is, in short, no kind of animal wanting here ; fowls they have of all sorts, and exquisitely good, especially peacocks, partridges, pheasants, wood-pigeons, and, for curiosity, they have the Indian bats, which differ a little from ours ; but its wings, when extended, measure full a yard ; the body of it is of the size of a rat. They have fish in great plenty and very good ; so that, for the value of three-pence, there may be enough bought to dine six or seven men. They have likewise a multitude of tortoises, the flesh of which is very little inferior to veal, and there are many who think it better.

It is said that there are in the island upwards of 40 great towns, which from the number of the inhabitants would in any other part of the world, merit the title of cities ; and more than 4500 villages, besides hamlets, and straggling houses, lying near each other, upon the sea-coast and in the neighbourhood of great towns ; hence, upon a fair and moderate computation, there are, within the boundaries of the whole island, taking in persons of both sexes and of all ranks and ages, more than 30,000,000 of souls.

There are a great many princes in the island, of which the most considerable are the emperor of Materin, who resides at Katasura, and the kings of Bantam and Japara. Upon the first of these many of the petty princes are dependant ; but the Dutch are absolute masters of the greatest part of the island, particularly of the north coast, though there are some of the princes, beyond the mountains, on the south coast who still maintain their independency. The natives of the country who are established in the neighbourhood of Batavia, and for a tract of about 40 leagues along the mountains of the country of Bantam, are immediately subject to the governor general. The company send drossards or commissaries among them, who administer justice and take care of the public revenues.

The city of Batavia is the capital, not only of this island but of all the Dutch dominions in India. It is an exceeding fine city, situated in the latitude of 6° south, at the mouth of the river Jucatra, and in the bosom of a large commodious bay, which may be considered not only as one of the safest harbours in India but in the world. The city is surrounded by a rampart 21 feet thick, covered on the outside with stone, and fortified with 22 bastions. This rampart is environed by a ditch, 45 yards over, full of water, especially when the tides are high in the spring. The avenues to the town are defended by several forts, each of which is well furnished with excellent brass cannon ; no person is suffered to go beyond these forts without a passport. The river Jucata passes through the midst of the town, and forms 15 canals of running water, all faced with free-stone, and adorned with trees that are ever green ; over these canals are 56 bridges, besides those which lie without the town. The streets are all perfectly straight, and each, generally speaking, 30 feet broad. The houses are built of stone, after the manner of those in Holland. The city is about a league and a half in circumference, and has five gates ; but there are ten times the number of houses without that there are within it. There is

a very fine town-house, four Calvinist churches, besides other places of worship for all sorts of religions, a spin-huys or house of correction, an orphan-house, a magazine of sea-stores, several for spices, with wharfs and cord-manufactures, with many other public buildings. The garrison consists commonly of between 2000 and 3000 men. Besides the forts mentioned above, there is the citadel of Batavia, a very fine regular fortification, situated at the mouth of the river, and flanked with four bastions; two of which command the sea and the other two the town. It is in this citadel that the governor general of the Indies has his palace; over against which is that of the director general, who is the next person to the governor. The counsellors and other principal officers of the company have also their apartments; as have likewise the physician, the surgeon, and the apothecary. There are in it besides arsenals and magazines furnished with ammunition for many years. The city of Batavia is not only inhabited by Dutch, French, Portuguese, and other Europeans established here on account of trade; but also by a vast number of Indians of different nations, Javanese, Chinese, Malayans, Negroes, Amboynese, Armenians, natives of the isle of Bali, Mardykers, or Topasses, Macassers, Timors, Bongis, &c.

Bali is fertile and populous. Banca and Biliton do not merit any particular description.

Borneo, an island of Asia in the East Indies, and the one of the three great Sunda islands. It is thought to be the largest island in the world next to New Holland; being 1500 miles in circumference. It is seated under the equator, that line cutting it almost through the middle. It is almost of a circular figure; abounds with gold; and the finest diamonds in the Indies are found in its rivers, being probably washed down from the hills by the torrents. Here are also mines of iron, tin, and loadstones. The beasts are oxen, buffaloes, deer, goats, elephants, tygers and monkeys. This island has fine rivers, especially towards the west and south. In their monsoon from April to September the wind is westerly; and they have continual heavy rains, attended with violent storms of thunder and lightning. The rainy season continues for eight months of the year; and as, during that time the flat country near the coast is overflowed, the air is rendered very unhealthful, and the inhabitants are forced to build their houses on floats, which they make fast to trees. The houses have but one floor, with partitions made with cane; and the roofs are covered with palmetto leaves, the eaves of which reach within four or five feet of the bottom. The west and north-east sides of the island are almost desert, and the east is but little known. The inland parts are very mountainous, and the south-east, for many leagues together, is a stinking morass, which, being overflowed in wet season, is very unhealthy.

The Portuguese, who first discovered Borneo, had arrived in the Indies about 30 years before they knew any thing of it more than the name and its situation, by reason of their frequently passing by its coast. At last one captain Edward Corril had orders to examine it more narrowly; and being once acquainted with the worth of the country, they made frequent voyages thither. They found the coasts inhabited by the Moors, who had certainly established themselves there by conquest; but the original inhabitants

still remain in the mountains, and are styled Beajus, which, in the Malayan language, signifies a wild man. The most authentic account of these people is the following; which was extracted from the papers of father Antonio Ventimiglia, an Italian missionary. He went to Borneo from Macao, on board a Portuguese ship, converted great numbers to Christianity, and died on the island about the year 1691. The Beajus have no kings, but many little chiefs. Some are subject to the Moorish kings, and pay them tribute; but such as live far up the country are altogether independent, and live according to their own customs. They are generally very superstitious, and much addicted to augury. They do not adore idols; but their sacrifices of sweet wood and perfumes are offered to one god, who, they believe, rewards the just in heaven, and punishes the wicked in hell. They marry but one wife; and look upon any breach of conjugal faith, either in the man or woman, as a capital offence. The Beajus are naturally honest and industrious, and have a brotherly affection for one another. They have a notion of property, which yet does not render them covetous. They sow and cultivate their lands; but in the time of harvest each reaps as much as will serve his family, and the rest belongs to the tribe in common; by which means they prevent necessity or disputes. With the Moors on the coasts the Portuguese for some time carried on a considerable trade; and by their request they settled a factory there, which, however, was afterwards surprised and plundered by the Moors, who put most of the people to the sword. The most considerable river in Borneo is called Banjar, at the mouth of which our East India company have a factory.

Celebes is an island in the Indian Sea, seated under the equator, and called by some Macassar. The length and breadth have not been accurately computed; but the circumference, at a medium, is about 800 miles. It had formerly six kingdoms, which are reduced to one. The air is hot and moist; and subject to great rains during the south-west winds, which blow from November to March, at which time the country is overflowed; and for this reason they build their houses on piles of wood 10 feet high. The most healthful time is during the northern monsoons, which seldom fail blowing regularly in one part of the year. The chief vegetables are rice and cocoas; but they have ebony, sanders, &c. Their fruits and flowers are much the same as in the neighbouring parts of the Indies. They have pepper, sugar, betel, areca, the finest cotton, and opium. The natives have bright olive complexions, and the women have shining black hair. The men are industrious, robust, and make excellent soldiers. Their arms are sabres and trunks, from whence they blow poisoned darts, which are pointed with the tooth of a sea-fish. Some likewise use poisoned daggers. They were the last of the Indian nations that were enslaved by the Dutch, which could not be effected till after a long war. They teach their children to read and write, and their characters have some resemblance of the Arabic. Their religion being Mahometan, the men indulge themselves in many wives and concubines. The employment of the women is spinning, cooking, and making their own and their husband's clothes. The men wear jewels in their ears, and the women gold chains about their necks. The inhabitants in general go half naked, without any thing on their head, legs, or feet, and some have nothing

but a cloth about the middle. The streets of the town of Macassar are spacious and planted with trees on every side. It stands by the side of the only large river they have in the island. The Dutch have a fort here mounted with 40 guns, and garrisoned with 700 men: there is only one other town of note, called Janapandam, where they also have a fort. The island is not near so populous as when the Dutch conquered it; the men being hired for soldiers in most of the neighbouring countries.

The religion of these islands was formerly idolatry. They worshipped the sun and moon. They sacrificed to them in the public squares, having no materials which they thought valuable enough to be employed in raising temples. About two centuries ago, some Christians and Mahometans having brought their opinions to Celebes, the principal king of the country took a dislike to the national worship. Having convened a general assembly, he ascended an eminence, when spreading out his hands towards heaven, he told the Deity that he would acknowledge for truth that doctrine whose minister should first arrive in his dominions; and as the winds and waves were at his command, the Almighty would have himself to blame if he embraced a falsehood. The assembly broke up, determined to wait the orders of heaven, and to obey the first missionaries that should arrive. The Mahometans were the most active, and their religion accordingly prevailed.

Bouton is about 12 miles distant from the south-east part of Celebes. The inhabitants are small but well shaped, and of a dark olive complexion. The principal town is Callasujeug, which is about a mile from the sea, on the top of a small hill and round it a stone wall. The houses are not built upon the ground, but on posts. The religion of the inhabitants is Mahometanism.

Timor abounds in sandal wood, wax, and honey; and the Dutch have a fort here. The inhabitants are pagans, and are little better than savages; and some pretend they had not the use of fire many years ago.

Of Cumbava, Hores, Ceram, and Gilolo, we have little else than their names.

The Molucca Islands lie in the East Indian Sea, under the line; of which there are five principal, namely Ternate, Tydor, Machian, Motyr, and Bachian. The largest of them is hardly 30 miles in circumference. They produce neither corn, rice, nor cattle, except goats; but they have oranges, lemons, and other fruits; and are most remarkable for spices, especially cloves. They have large snakes, which are not venemous, and very dangerous land crocodiles. At present they have three kings; and the Dutch who are very strong there, keep out all other European nations, being jealous of their spice-trade. The religion is idolatry; but there are many Mahometans. They were discovered by the Portuguese in 1511, who settled upon the coast; but the Dutch drove them away, and are now masters of all these islands.

The Philippine islands are certain islands of Asia, which lie between 114° and 126° of east lon.; and between 6° and 20° of north lat.; about 300 miles south-east of China. They are said to be about 1200 in number, of which there are 400 very considerable. They were discovered in the year 1521, by the famous navigator Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese gentleman, who had served his native country both in the wars of Africa

and the East Indies, particularly under Albuquerque, the famous Portuguese general, who reduced Goa Malacca to the obedience of that crown. Magellan, having had a considerable share in those actions, and finding himself neglected by the government of Portugal, and even denied, as it is said, the small advance of a ducat a month in his pay, left Portugal in disgust, and offered his services to Charles V. then emperor of Germany and king of Spain, whom he convinced of the probability of discovering a way to the Spice Islands in the East Indies by the west; whereupon the command of five small ships being given him, he set sail from Seville, on the 10th of August, 1519, and standing over to the coast of South America, proceeded southward to 52°, where he fortunately hit upon a strait, since called the Strait of Magellan, which carried him into the Pacific Ocean or South Sea; and then steering northward, repassed the equator: after which he stretched away to the west, across that vast ocean, till he arrived at Guam, one of the Ladrones, on the tenth of March, 1521; and soon after sailed to the westward and discovered the Philippines, which he did on St. Lazarus's day, and in honour of that saint he called them the Archipelago of St. Lazarus. He took possession of them in the name of the king of Spain, but happened to be killed in a skirmish he had with the natives of one of them. His people, however, arrived at the Moluccas or Clove islands, where they left a colony, and returned to Spain by the way of the Cape of Good Hope; being the first persons that ever sailed round the globe. But there was no attempt made by the Spaniards to subdue or plant the Philippine Islands until the year 1564, in the reign of Philip II. son of Charles V.; when Don Louis de Velasco, viceroy of Mexico, sent Michael Lopes Delagaspes thither, with a fleet and force sufficient to make a conquest of these islands, which he named the Philippines, in honour of Philip II. then upon the throne of Spain; and they remained under the dominion of that crown till taken by sir William Draper.

The Philippines are scarcely inferior to any other islands of Asia in all the natural productions of that happy climate; and they are by far the best situated for an extensive and advantageous commerce. By their position they form the centre of intercourse with China, Japan, and the Spice Islands; and whilst they are under the dominion of Spain, they connect the Asiatic and American commerce, and become a general magazine for the rich manufactures of the one and for the treasures of the other. Besides they are well situated for a supply of European goods, both from the side of Acapulco, and by the way of the Cape of Good Hope. In fact they formerly enjoyed a traffic in some degree proportioned to the peculiar felicity of their situation; but the Spanish dominion is too vast and unconnected to be improved to the best advantage. The spirit of commerce is not powerful in that people. The trade of the Philippines is thought to have declined; this great branch is now reduced to two ships, which annually pass between these islands and Acapulco in America, and to a single port of Manila, in the island of Luconia.

Indeed the Spaniards appear by no means to be actuated by a spirit of industry; for so far from improving the fine situation of these islands to the utmost, it happens, on the contrary, that the trade is hurtful to the mother-country; for, (to confine ourselves

to the Manila, with which they have most to do), instead of taking Spanish manufactures, they trade with the Chinese for spices, silks, stockings, Indian stuffs, calicoes, chintz, and many other articles; and with the Japanese for cabinets, and all sorts of lacquered ware; for all which they pay in gold or silver. All these commodities together with what the islands produce, and great quantities of wrought plate by the Chinese artisans, are collected at Manila, and transported annually in two ships to Acapulco in Mexico. Each of these ships is esteemed worth 600,000*l.* sterling; and in the war which began in 1739, and which was not distinguished by such a series of wonderful successes as that which ended in 1763, the taking of one of the galleons, which carry on the trade between Manila and America, was considered as one of the most brilliant advantages which we gained. This trade is not laid open to all the inhabitants of Manila, but is confined by very particular regulations, somewhat analagous to those by which the trade of the register ships from Cadiz to the West Indies is restrained. The ships employed are all king's ships, commissioned and paid by him, and the tonnage is divided into a certain number of bales, all of the same size. These are divided among the convents at Manila, but principally the Jesuits, as a donation, to support their missions for the propagation of the Roman Catholic faith. Most of the religions are concerned in this trade, and sell to the merchants at a great price what room in the ship they are not to occupy. This trade, is by a royal edict, limited in a certain value, but it always exceeds it; each ship being generally worth 3,000,000 of dollars. The returns made from America are of silver, cochineal, sweetmeats, together with some European millinery ware for the women, and some strong Spanish wine. It is obvious that the greatest part of the treasure remitted does not remain at Manila, but is dispersed over India for goods. Many strong remonstrances against this India trade to Mexico have been made to the court of Spain; wherein they urge that the silk manufactories of Valentia and other parts of Spain, the linens from Cadiz, and the other manufactories, are hurt in their sale in Mexico and Peru, by the Chinese being able to afford their goods, of the same sort, cheaper than they are able; that were this trade laid open, the whole treasure of the New World would centre in Spain or with European merchants; but now it enriches only the Jesuits and a few private persons. Wise as these arguments are, the Jesuits and priests, versant in intrigue, and the most selfish set of men on earth, had interest enough at court to stop the effect.

At Cavite, in this bay, is a fort, a town, and a fine dock-yard, where these large galleons are built and repaired, and where they load and unload, together with all the other large ships that trade to this bay.

The principal of the Philippine islands are Luconia or Manila, Tandaga or Samul, Masbate, Mindora, Luban, Paragoa, Panay, Leyte, Bohel, Sibu, Sogbu, Negros, St. John Xolo, and Mindanao. In most of these the Spanish power prevails, and all are under the governor of Luconia; but there are some in which that nation has little authority or even influence, such as Mindanao.

The inhabitants of these islands consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintadors or Painted People, and Mestees, a mixture of all these. Their

persons and habits resemble those of the several nations whence they derive their original; only it is observable that the features of the blacks of these islands are as agreeable as those of the white people. There is not a soil in the world that produces greater plenty of all things for life; as appears by the multitude of inhabitants to be found in the woods and mountains, who subsist almost entirely by the fruits of the earth and the venison they take. Nor can any country appear more beautiful, for there is perpetual verdure and buds; blossoms and fruit are found upon the trees all the year round, as well on the mountains as the cultivated gardens. Vast quantities of gold are washed down from the hills by the rains, and found mixed with the sand of the rivers. There are also mines of other metals and loadstones found here; and such numbers of wild buffaloes, that a good huntsman on horeback, armed with a spear, will kill 10 or 20 in a day. The Spaniards take them for their hides, which they sell to the Chinese; and their carcases serve the mountaineers for food. Their woods also abound with deer, wild hogs, and goats. Of the last there is such plenty in one of these islands, that the Spaniards gave it the name of Cabras. Horses and cows have been likewise imported into these islands from New Spain, China, and Japan, which have multiplied considerably; but the sheep that were brought over came to nothing. The trees produce a variety of gums; one kind, which is the commonest, by the Spaniards called brea, is used instead of pitch; of the others, some are medicinal, others odoriferous.

In these islands are monkeys and baboons of a monstrous bigness, that will defend themselves if attacked by men. When they can find no fruits in the mountains, they go down to the sea to catch crabs ond oysters; and that the oysters may not close and catch their paws, they first put in a stone to prevent their shutting close; they take crabs by putting their tail in holes where they lie, and when the crab lay hold of it, they draw him out. There are also great numbers of civit-cats in some of the islands. The bird called tavan, is a black sea-fowl, something less than a hen, and has a long neck; it lays its eggs in the sand, by the sea-side, 40 or 50 in a trench, and then covers them, and they are hatched by the heat of the sun. They have likewise the bird saligan, which builds her nests on the sides of rocks, as the swallows do against a wall; and these are the delicious birds' nests so much esteemed, being a kind of jelly that dissolves in warm water.

The Spaniards have introduced several of the American fruits, which thrive here as well as in America, the cocoa or chocolate-nut particularly, which increases so that they have no occasion now to import from Mexico. Here is also the fountain-tree, from which the natives draw water; and there is likewise a kind of cane, by the Spaniards called vaxuco, which, if cut, yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there are plenty in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

These islands, being hot and moist, produce abundance of venemous creatures, as the soil does poisonous herbs and flowers, which do not kill those who touch or taste them, but so infect the air that many people die in the time of their blossoming.

The orange, lemon, and several other trees bear twice a-year. A sprig, when planted,

becomes a tree, and bears fruit in a year's time; so that, without any hyperbole, it may be affirmed, that a more luxuriant, verdant soil can scarcely be conceived. The woods are filled with old, large, and lofty trees, and such as yield more sustenance to man than is to be found in almost any other part of the world. These islands, however, besides their other inconveniences, of which they have many, are very subject to earthquakes, which often prove very fatal.

CHAPTER VI.

An historical view of the principal revolutions in the East of Asia.

THE history of those countries of which we have now to speak ascends to a high antiquity, and is consequently corrupted by fable.

According to the Chinese historians, the first monarch of the whole universe (that is of China) was called Puon-ku or Puen-cu. This, according to some, was the first man; but according to Bayer and Menzelins, two of the greatest critics in Chinese literature that have hitherto appeared, the word signifies the highest antiquity. Puon-ku was succeeded by Tiene-hoang, which signifies the emperor of heaven. They call him also the intelligent heaven, the supreme king of the middle heaven, &c. According to some of their historians he was the inventor of letters of the Cylic characters, by which they determine the place of the year, &c. Tiene-hoang was succeeded by Ti-hoang (the emperor of the earth) who divided the day and night, appointing 30 days to make one moon, and fixed the winter solstice to the 11th moon. Ti-hoang was succeeded by Giene-hoang (sovereign of men), who, with his nine brothers, shared the government among them. They built cities and surrounded them with walls, made a distinction between the sovereign and subjects, instituted marriages, &c.

The reigns of these four emperors make up one of what the Chinese called ki, ages or periods, of which there were nine before Fo-hi, whom their most sensible people acknowledge as the founder of their empire.

The history of the second ki contradicts almost every thing said of the first; for though we have but just now been told that Giene-hoang and his brethren built cities surrounded with walls; yet, in the succeeding age, the people dwelt in caves, or perched upon trees, as it were on nests. Of the third ki we hear nothing, and in the fourth it seems matters had been still worse, as we are told that men were then only taught to retire into the hollows of rocks. Of the fifth and sixth we have no accounts. These six periods, according to some writers, contained 90,000 years; according to others, 1,100,750.

In the seventh and eighth ki they tell us over again what they said of the first; namely that the men began to leave their caves and dwell in houses, and were taught to prepare clothes, &c. Tchine-fang, the first monarch of the eighth ki, taught his subjects to take off the hair from skins with rollers of wood, and cover themselves with the skins so prepared. He taught them also to make a kind of web with their hair, to serve as a covering to their heads against the rain. They obeyed his orders with joy; and he called his subjects people clothed with skins. His reign lasted 350 years; that of one of his successors also, named Yeon-tsao-chi, lasted more than 300; and his family continued for 12 or 18,000 years. But what is very surprising, all these thousands and millions of years had elapsed without mankind having any knowledge of fire. This was not

discovered till towards the close of this period, by one Souigine. After so useful a discovery he taught the people to dress their victuals; whereas, before, they had devoured the flesh of animals quite raw, drunk their blood, and swallowed even their hair and feathers. He is also said to have been the inventor of fishing, letters, &c.

In the ninth period we find the invention or at least the origin of letters attributed to one Tsang hie, who received them from a divine tortoise, that carried them on his shell, and delivered them into the hands of Tsang-hie. During this period, also, music, money, carriages, merchandize, commerce, &c. were invented. There are various calculations of the length of these ki or periods. Some make the time from Puon-cu to Confucious, who flourished about 479 years before Christ, to contain 279,000 years; others 2,759,860 years; others 3,276,000; and some no less than 96,961,740 years.

These extravagant accounts are by some thought to contain obscure and imperfect hints concerning the cosmogony and creation of the world, &c. Puon-ku, the first emperor, they think represents eternity, preceding the duration of the world. The succeeding ones, Tiene-hoang, Ti-hoang, and Gine-hoang, they imagine signifieth creations of the heavens and the earth, and the formation of man. The ten ki or ages, nine of which preceded Fo-hi, mean the ten generations preceding Noah.

That this may be the case will probably appear very credible to such as have examined the Mythological History of Hindostan.

Fo-hi, it is pretended, was born in the province of Shen-si. His mother, walking upon the bank of a lake in that province, saw a very large print of a man's foot in the sand there, and being surrounded by an Iris or rainbow, became impregnated. The child was named Fo-hi; and when he grew up, was, by his countrymen, elected king, on account of his superior merit, and styled Tyent-tse, that is, the son of heaven. He invented the eight qua or symbols, consisting of three lines each, which differently combined, formed 64 characters, that were made use of to express ever thing. To give these the greater credit, he pretended that he had seen them described upon the back of a dragon-horse (an animal, shaped like a horse, with the wings and scales of a dragon), which arose from the bottom of a lake. Having gained great reputation among his countrymen by this prodigy, he is said to have created mandarins or officers under the name of Dragons. Hence we may assign the reason why the emperors of China always carry a dragon in their banners. He also instituted marriage, invented music, &c. Having established a prime minister, he divided the government of his dominions among four mandarins and died, after a reign of 115 years.

These fabulous accounts of Fo-hi are, with great probability, considered as referring to the patriarch Noah. As the simile of a dragon was frequently made use of by the antients to signify a large body of water. To Fo-hi's discovering the 64 characters on the back of such an animal may imply that these symbols were of antediluvian invention. Leaving, however, these fabulous and conjectural times, we shall proceed to give some account of that part of the Chinese history which may be more certainly depended on.

As the Chinese, contrary to the practice of almost all nations, have never sought to conquer other countries, but rather to improve and content themselves with their own,

their history, for many ages, furnishes nothing remarkable. The whole of their emperors, abstracted from those who are said to have reigned in the fabulous times, are comprehended in 22 dynasties, mentioned in the following table.

	Emperors.	Before Christ.		Emperors.	After Christ.
1. Hya containing	17	2207	12. Swi	5	
2. Shang or Ing	28	1766	13. Twang	20	618
3. Chew	35	1122	14. Hew-lyang	2	907
4. Tsin	4	248	15. Hew-tang	4	923
5. Han	25	206	16. Hew-tsin	2	936
		After Christ.			
6. Hew-han	2	220	17. Hew-han	2	947
7. Tsin	15	465	18. Hew-chew	3	951
8. Song	8	220	19. Song	18	960
9. Tsi	5	479	20. Iwen	9	1280
10. Lyang	4	502	21. Ming	16	1368
11. Chin	4	557	22. Tsing		1645

The most interesting particulars of the Chinese history relate to the incursions of the Tartars, which commenced very early, and frequently desolated the northern provinces. About the year before Christ 213, Shi-wang-ti, having subdued all the princes or kings as they were called, of the different provinces, became emperor of China with unlimited power. He divided the whole empire into 36 provinces; and finding the northern part of his dominions much incommoded by the invasions of the neighbouring barbarians, he sent a formidable army against them, which drove them far beyond the boundaries of China. To prevent their return he built the famous wall, which separates China from Tartary. After this, being elated with his own exploits, he formed a design of making posterity believe that he himself had been the first Chinese emperor that ever sat on the throne. For this purpose he ordered all historical writings to be burnt, and caused many of the learned to be put to death.

What effect the great wall for some time had in preventing the invasion of the Tartars we are not told; but in the 10th century of the Christian era those of Kitan or Lyan got a footing in China. The Kitan were a people of Eastern Tartary, who dwelt to the north and north-east of the province of Pecheli in China, particularly in that of Layn-tong, lying without the great wall. These people, having subdued the country between Korea and Kashgar, became much more troublesome to the Chinese than all the other Tartars. Their empire commenced about the year 916, and gained its greatest strength from the rapid succession of revolutions, which seated seven different families on the throne of China. Several treaties were concluded much to the advantage of the invaders, who, besides certain cities in the province of Pecheli, had granted them, in the year 1035, an annual tribute of 200,000 ounces of silver, and 300,000 pieces of silk.

From this time the Kitan remained in peaceable possession of their Chinese dominions till the year 1117. Whey-tsong, at that time emperor, being able neither to bear their ravages, nor, by himself, to put a stop to them, resolved upon a remedy, which, at last, proved worse than the disease. This was to call in the Nu-che, Nyu-che, or Eastern Tartars, to destroy the kingdom of the Kitan. From this he was dissuaded by the king of Korea and most of his own ministers; but disregarding their salutary advice, he joined his forces to those of the Nu-che. The Kitan were then every where defeated; and at last reduced to such extremity, that those who remained were forced to leave their country and fly to the mountains of the west.

Thus the empire of the Kitan was totally destroyed but nothing to the advantage of the Chinese; for the Tartar general, elated with his conquest, gave the name of Kin to his new dominion, assumed the title of emperor, and began to think of aggrandizing himself and enlarging his empire. For this purpose he immediately broke the treaties concluded with the Chinese emperor; and invading the provinces of Pecheli and Shensi, made himself master of the greater part of them. Whey-tson, finding himself in danger of losing his dominions, made several advantageous proposals to the Tartar; who, seeming to comply with them, invited him to come and settle matters by a personal conference. The Chinese monarch complied; but the terms agreed on seemed intolerable to his ministers; so that they told him the treaty could not subsist, and that the most cruel war was preferable to such an ignominious peace. The Kin monarch, being informed of all that had passed, had recourse to arms, and took several cities. Whey-tsong was weak enough to go in person to hold a second conference, but, on his arrival, was immediately seized by the Tartars. He was kept prisoner under a strong guard, during the remaining part of life; and ended his days in 1126, in the desert of Shamo, having nominated his eldest son, Kin-tsong, to succeed him.

Kin-tsong made no successful opposition to the invaders, who crossed the Yellow river, took and plundered the imperial city, and carried the emperor and his consort into captivity.

His successor Kan-tsong, fixed his court at Nankin, the capital of Kyang-nan; but soon after was obliged to remove it to Kang-chew in Che Kyang. He made several efforts to recover some of his provinces from the Kin, but without effect. Ili-tsong, the Kin monarch, in the mean time endeavoured to gain the esteem of his Chinese subjects, by paying a regard to their learning and learned men, and honouring the memory of Confucious. Some time after he advanced to Nankin, from whence Kan-tsong had retired, and took it; but receiving advice that Yo-si, general of the Song or Southern Chinese, was advancing, by long marches, to the relief of that city, they set fire to the palace and retired northward. However Yo-si arrived time enough to fall upon their rear guard, which suffered very much; and from this time the Kin never dared to cross the river Kyang. In a few years afterwards the Chinese emperor submitted to become tributary to the Kin, and concluded a peace with them upon very dishonourable terms. This submission, however, was of very little avail; for in 1163 the Tartars broke the peace; and invading the southern provinces with a formidable army, took the city of

Yang-chew. The king, having approached the river Kyang, near its mouth, where it is widest as well as most rapid, commanded his troops to cross it, threatening with his drawn sword, to kill those who refused. On receiving such an unreasonable command, the whole mutinied; and the king being killed in the beginning of the tumult, the army immediately retired.

From this time to the year 1210 nothing remarkable occurs in the Chinese history; but this year Jenghiz-khan, chief of the Western Tartars, Moguls, or Mungls, quarrelled with Yong-tsi, emperor of the Kin; and at the same time the king of Hya, disgusted at being refused assistance against Jenghiz-khan, threatened him with an invasion on the west side. Yong-tsi prepared for his defence; but in 1211, receiving news that Jenghiz-khan was advancing southward with his whole army, he was seized with fear, and made proposals of peace, which were rejected. In 1212 the Mogul generals forced the great wall; or, according to some writers, had one of the gates treacherously opened to them to the north of Shansi; and made incursions as far as Pekin, the capital of the Kin empire. At the same time the province of Lyan-tong was almost totally reduced by several Kitan lords, who had joined Jenghiz-khan; several strong places were taken, and an army of 300,000 Kin defeated by the Moguls. In autumn they laid siege to the city of Tay-tong-fu; where, although the governor Hujaku fled, yet Jenghiz-khan met with considerable resistance. Having lost a vast number of men, and being himself wounded by an arrow, he was obliged to raise the siege and retire into Tartary; after which the Kin retook several cities. The next year, however, Jenghiz-khan re-entered China; retook the cities which the Kin had reduced the year before; and overthrew their armies in two bloody battles, in which the ground was strewed with dead bodies for upwards of four leagues.

The same year Yong-tsi was slain by his general Hujaku; and Sun, a prince of the blood advanced in his room. After this the Moguls, attacking the empire with four armies at once, laid waste the provinces of Shansi, Honan, Pecheli, and Shantong. In 1214 Jenghiz-khan sat down before Pekin; but instead of assaulting the city, offered terms of peace, which were accepted, and the Moguls retired into Tartary. After their departure, the emperor, leaving his son at Pekin, removed his court to Pyen, laying near Kayson-fu, the capital of Honan. At this Jenghiz-khan being offended, immediately sent troops to besiege Pekin. The city held out to the fifth month of the year 1215, and then surrendered. At the same time the Moguls finished the conquest of Lyan-tong; and the Song refused to pay the usual tribute to the Kin.

In 1216 Jenghiz-khan returned to pursue his conquests in the west of Asia, where he staid seven years; during which his general Muhuli made great progress in China against the Kin emperor. He was greatly assisted by the motions of Ning-tsong, emperor of the Song or Southern China; who, incensed by the frequent perfidies of the Kin, had declared war against them, and would hearken to no terms of peace, though very advantageous proposals were made. Notwithstanding this, however, in 1220, the Kin, exerting themselves, raised two great armies, one in Shensi and the other in Shangton. The former baffled the attempts of the Song and king of Hya, who had united

against them; but the latter, though no fewer than 200,000, were entirely defeated by Mahuli. In 1221 that officer passed the Whang-ho, and died after conquering many cities.

In 1224 the Kin emperor died; and was succeeded by his son Shew, who made peace with the king of Hya; but next year that kingdom was entirely destroyed by Jenghiz-khan. In 1226 Otkay, son of Jenghiz-khan, marched into Honan, and besieged Kaysong-fu, capital of the Hin empire; but was obliged to draw into Shensi, where he took several cities, and cut in pieces an army of 30 000 men. In 1227 Jenghiz-khan died, after having desired his sons to demand a passage for their army through the dominions of the Song, without which, he said, they could not easily vanquish the Kin.

After the death of that great conqueror, the war was carried on with various success, but the Moguls took above 60 important posts in the province of Shensi; they found it impossible to force Ton-quan, which it behoved them to do, in order to penetrate effectually into Honan. In April, 1231, they took the capital of Shensi, and defeated the Kin army which came to its relief. Here one of the officers desired prince Toley to demand a passage from the Song through the country of Han-chong-fu. This proposal Toley communicated to his brother Oktay, who approved of it, as being conformable to the dying advice of Jenghiz-khan. Hereupon Toley, having assembled all his forces, sent a messenger to the Song generals, to demand a passage through their territories. This, however, they not only refused, but put the messenger to death; which so enraged Toley that he swore to make them repent of it, and was soon as good as his word. He decamped in August, 1231; and having forced the passages, put to the sword the inhabitants of Wha-yang and Fong-chew, two cities in the district of Han-chong-fu itself. The miserable inhabitants fled to the mountains on his approach, and more than 100,000 of them perished. After this, Toley divided his forces, consisting of 30,000 horse, into two bodies. One of these went westward to Myen-chew; from thence, after opening the passages of the mountains, they arrived at the river Kyaling, which runs into the great Cyang. This they crossed on rafts, made of the wood of demolished houses; and then, marching along its banks, seized many important posts. At last, having destroyed more than 140 cities, towns, and fortresses, they returned to the army. The second detachment seized an important post in the mountains, called Tantong, six or seven leagues to the eastward of Han-chong-fu. On the other side Otkay advanced in October towards Pu-chew, a city of Shan-si; which being taken after a vigorous defence, he prepared to pass the Whang-ho. Toley, after surmounting incredible difficulties, arrived, in December, on the borders of Honan, and made a show as if he designed to attack the capital of the Kin empire. On his first appearance in Honan, through a passage so little suspected, every body was filled with terror and astonishment, so that he proceeded for some time without opposition. At last the emperor ordered his generals Hota, Hapua, and others to march against the enemy. Toley boldly attacked them; but was obliged to retire, which he did in good order. Hola was for pursuing him, saying that the Mogul army did not exceed 30,000 men, and that they seemed not to

have eaten any thing for two or three days. Hapua, however, was of opinion that there was no occasion of being so hasty, as the Moguls were inclosed between the rivers Han and Whang-ho, so that they could not escape. This negligence they soon had occasion to repent of; for Toley, by a stratagem, made himself master of their heavy baggage; which accident obliged them to retire to Tang-chew. From thence they sent a messenger to acquaint the emperor that they had gained the battle, but concealed the loss of their baggage. This good news filled the court with joy; and the people, who had retired into the capital for its defence, left it again, and went into the country: but in a few days after, the vanguard of the Moguls, who had been sent by the emperor Oktay, appeared in the field, and carried off a great number of those that had quitted the city.

In January, 1232, Otkay, passing the Whang-ho, encamped in the district of Kay-fong-fu, capital of the Kin empire, and sent his general Suputay to besiege the city. At that time the place was near 30 miles in circumference; but having only 40,000 soldiers to defend it, more from the neighbouring cities and 20,000 peasants were ordered into it: while the emperor published an affecting declaration, animating the people to defend it to the last extremity. Otkay having heard with joy of Toley's entrance into Honar, ordered him to send succours to Suputay. On the other hand, the Kin generals advanced with 150,000 men to relieve the city; but being obliged to divide their forces, in order to avoid in part the great road which Toley had obstructed with trees, they were attacked by that prince at a disadvantage, and after a faint resistance, defeated with great slaughter, and the loss of both their generals, one killed and the other taken. The emperor now ordered the army at Ton-quan and other fortified places to march to the relief of Kay-fong-fu. They assembled accordingly, to the number of 110,000 foot and 15,000 horse, and were followed by vast numbers of people, who, expected by their means, to be protected from the enemy. But many of these troops having deserted, and the rest being enfeebled by the fatigues of their march, they dispersed on the approach of their pursuers, who killed all they found in the highways. After this the Moguls took Ton-quan and some other considerable posts; but were obliged to raise the sieges of Quey-ti-fu and Loyang, by the bravery of the governors. Kyang-shin, governor of Loyang, and only 3 or 4000 soldiers under him, while his enemies were 30,000 strong. He placed his worst soldiers on the walls, putting himself at the head of 400 brave men; whom he ordered to go naked, and whom he led to all dangerous attacks. He invented engines to cast large stones, which required but few hands to play them, and aimed so true as to hit at 100 paces distant. When their arrows failed, he cut those shot by the enemy into four pieces; pointed them with pieces of brass coin; and discharged them from wooden tubes, with as much force as bullets are from a musket. Thus he harrassed the Moguls for three months so grievously that they were obliged, notwithstanding their numbers, to abandon the enterprize.

Otkay, at last, notwithstanding his success, resolved to return to Tartary, and offered the Kin emperor peace, provided he became tributary, and delivered up to him 27 families, which he named. These offers were very agreeable to the emperor; but

Suputary, taking no notice of the treaty, pushed on the siege of the capital with more vigour than ever. By the help of the Chinese slaves in his army, the Mogul general soon filled the ditch; but all his efforts seemed only to inspire the besieged with new vigour. The Moguls at that time made use of artillery, but were unable to make the least impression upon the city walls. They raised walls round those they besieged, which they fortified with ditches, towers, and battlements. They proceeded also to sap the walls of the city, but were very much annoyed by the artillery of the besieged, especially by their bombs, which falling into the galleries and bursting under ground, made great havoc among the miners. For 16 days and nights the attacks continued without intermission; during which time an incredible number of men perished on both sides; at length Suputay, finding that he could not take the city, withdrew his troops, under pretence of conferences being on foot. Soon after the plague began in Kay-fong-fu; and raged with such violence that in 50 days 900,000 biers were carried out, besides a vast multitude of the poorer sort, who could not afford any.

This peace being but of short duration Suputay received orders to continue the war in Honan. It was not long before the capital was delivered up by treachery, and Suputay put all the males of the imperial race to death; but, by the express command of Oktay, spared the inhabitants, who are said to have amounted to 1,400,000 families. After this disaster the unhappy monarch left his troops in Quey-teou, and retired to Juning-fu, a city in the southern part of Honan, attended only by 400 persons. Here the distance of the Moguls made him think of living at ease; but while he flattered himself with these vain hopes, the enemy's army arrived before the city, and invested it. The garrison were terrified at their approach; but were encouraged by the emperor and his brave general Hu-sye-hu to hold out to the last. As there were not in the city a sufficient number of men, the women, dressed in men's clothes, were employed to carry wood, stones, and other necessary material to the walls. All their efforts, however, were ineffectual. They were reduced to such extremities that in three months they fed on human flesh; killing the old and feeble as well as many prisoners for food. This being known to the Moguls, they made a general assault in January, 1234. The attack continued from morning till night; but at last the assailants were repulsed. In this action, however, the Kin lost all their best officers; upon which the emperor resigned the Crown to Ching-lin, a prince of the blood. Next morning while the ceremony of investing the new emperor was performing, the enemy mounted the south walls, which were defended only by 200 men; and the south gate being at the same time abandoned, the whole army broke in. They were opposed, however, by Hu-sye-hu, who, with 1000 soldiers, continued to fight with amazing intrepidity. In the mean time Shew-fu, seeing every thing irreparably lost, lodged the seal of the empire in a house; and then causing sheaves of straw to be set round it, ordered it to be set on fire as soon as he was dead. After giving this order he hanged himself, and his commands were executed by his domestics. Hu-sye-hu, who still continued fighting with great bravery, no sooner heard of the tragical death of the emperor than he drowned himself in the river Ju; as did also 500 of his most resolute soldiers. The same day the new

emperor Ching-lin, was slain in a tumult, and thus an end was put to the dominion of the Kin Tartars in China.

The reduction of the Kin empire was speedily followed by a war with the Song or the Southern Chinese. This was continued with a prodigious loss of human life, to the year 1278, when the Moguls completed the conquest of China and founded a dynasty, known by the name of the Ywen.

Though no race of men that ever existed were more remarkable for cruelty than the Moguls; yet it doth not appear that the emperors of the Ywen dynasty were, in any respect, worse than their predecessors. On the contrary, Hupilay, by the Chinese called Shi-tsu, found the way of reconciling the people to his government and even of endearing himself to them so much, that the reign of his family is to this day styled by the Chinese the wise government. This he accomplished by keeping as close as possible to their antient laws and customs, by his mild and just government, and by his regard for their learned men. He was indeed ashamed of the ignorance and barbarity of his Mogul subjects, when compared with the Chinese. The whole knowledge of the former was summed up in their skill in managing their arms and horses, being perfectly destitute of every art or science, or even of the knowledge of letters. In 1269 he had caused the Mogul characters to be contrived. In 1280 he caused some mathematicians to search for the source of the river Whang-ho, which, at that time, was unknown to the Chinese themselves. In four months time they arrived in the country where it rises, and made a map of it, which they presented to his majesty. The same year a treatise on astronomy was published by his order; and in 1282 he ordered the learned men to repair from all parts of the empire to examine the state of literature, and take measures for its advancement.

At his first accession to the crown he fixed his residence at Tay-ywen-fu, the capital of Shen-si; but thought proper afterwards to remove to Pekin. Here, being informed that the barks, which brought to court the tribute of the southern provinces, or carried on the trade of the empire, were obliged to come by sea, and often suffered shipwreck, he caused that celebrated canal to be made, which is at present one of the wonders of the Chinese empire, being 300 leagues in length. By this canal above 9000 imperial barks transport with ease, and at a small expence, the tribute of grain, rice, silks, &c. which is annually paid to the court. In the third year of his reign, Shi-tsu formed a design of reducing the islands of Japan and the kingdoms of Tonquin and Cochin-China. Both these enterprises ended unfortunately, but the first remarkably so; for of 100,000 persons employed in it only four or five escaped, with the melancholy news of the destruction of the rest, who all perished by shipwreck. Shi-tsu reigned 15 years, died in the 80th year of his age, and was succeeded by his grandson. The throne continued in the Ywen family till the year 1367, when Shun-ti, the last of that dynasty, was driven out by a Chinese named Chu.

The dynasty of the Ming, which was founded by Chu, possessed the throne of China from 1368 to 1644. While they held the reins of empire an event took place which connected the affairs of Asia with those of the maritime powers of Europe. This was

the discovery of India in 1498 by Vasco de Gam, a Portuguese admiral. The Portuguese, not content with the advantages they derived from the commerce of Hindostan, made an attack in 1511, upon Malacca, one of the richest cities in India, and the centre of trade between Japan, China, the Spice Islands, and the other Indian ports. When Albuquerque appeared before Malacca, he found it in a posture of defence; and a new obstacle conspired to retard his progress. His friend Araujo was there a prisoner and threatened with death the moment the city should be besieged. Deliberating how to act, while the sentiments of friendship and ambition, perhaps of duty, struggled in his breast, he received the following billet from Araujo. "Think only of the glory and advantage of Portugal; If I cannot be an instrument of your victory, let me not retard it." The place was carried by storm, after an obstinate defence and several changes of fortune. The Portuguese found in it an immense booty, both in treasure and precious commodities. Albuquerque, whose heart was superior to the charms of gold, erected a citadel to secure his conquest, and return to Goa.

The last emperor of Chinese origin was named Whay-tsong, and ascended the throne in 1928. He was a great lover of the sciences, and a favourer of the Christians, though much addicted to the superstitions of the Bonzes. He found himself engaged in a war with the Tartars, and a number of rebels in different provinces. That he might more effectually suppress the latter, he resolved to make peace with the former; and for that end sent one of his generals, named Ywen, into Tartary, at the head of an army, with full power to negociate a peace; but that traitor made one upon such shameful terms that the emperor refused to ratify it. Ywen, in order to oblige his master to comply with the terms made by himself, poisoned his best and most faithful general, named Man-ven-long; and then desired the Tartars to march directly to Pekin, by a road, different from that which he took with his army. This they accordingly did, and laid siege to the capital. Ywen was ordered to come to its relief; but on his arrival was put to the torture and strangled; of which the Tartars were no sooner informed than they raised the siege and returned to their own country. In 1636 the rebels above mentioned composed four great armies, commanded by as many generals; which, however were soon reduced to two, commanded by Li and Chang. These agreed to divide the empire between them; Chang taking the western provinces and Li the eastern ones. The latter seized on part of Shen-si and then of Honan, whose capital named Kaig-fong-fu, he laid siege to, but was repulsed with loss. He renewed it six months after, but without success; the besieged choosing rather to feed on human flesh than surrender. The imperial forces coming soon after to its assistance, the general made no doubt of being able to destroy the rebels at once, by breaking down the banks the Yellow river; but unfortunately the rebels escaped to the mountains, while the city was quite overflowed, and 300,000 of the inhabitants perished.

After this disaster Li marched into the provinces of Shen-si and Honan; where he put to death all the mandarins, exacted great sums from the officers in place, and showed no favour to any but the populace, whom he freed from all taxes: by this means he drew so many to his interest that he thought himself strong enough to assume the title

of emperor. He next advanced towards the capital, which, though well garrisoned, was divided into factions. Li had taken care to introduce beforehand a number of his men in disguise; and by these the gates were opened to him the third day after his arrival. He entered the city in triumph, at the head of 200,000 men; whilst the emperor kept himself shut up in his palace, busied only with his superstitions. It was not long, however, before he found himself betrayed; and under the greatest consternation made an effort to get out of the palace, attended by about 600 of his guards. He was still more surprised to see himself treacherously abandoned by them, and deprived of all hopes of escaping the insults of his subjects. Upon this, preferring death to the disgrace of falling alive into their hands, he immediately retired with his empress, whom he tenderly loved, and the princess her daughter into a private part of the garden. His grief was so great that he was not able to utter a word; but she soon understood his meaning, and after a few silent embraces hanged herself on a tree, in a silken string. Her husband staid only to write these words on the border of the vest: "I have been basely deserted by my subjects; do what you will with me, but spare my people." He then cut off the young princess's head with one stroke of his scymitar, and hanged himself on another tree, in the 17th year of his reign and the 36th of his age. His prime minister, queens, and eunuchs followed his example; and thus ended the Chinese monarchy, to give place to that of the Tartars, which hath continued ever since.

It was some time before the body of the unfortunate monarch was found. At last it was brought before the rebel Li, and by him used with the utmost indignity; after which he caused two of Whey-tsong's sons and all his ministers to be beheaded; but his eldest son happily escaped by flight. The whole empire submitted peaceably to the usurper, except prince U-san-ghey, who commanded the imperial forces in the province of Lyan-tong. This brave prince, finding himself unable to cope with the usurper, invited the Tartars to his assistance; and Tsong-te, their king, immediately joined them, with an army of 80,000 men. Upon this the usurper directly marched to Pekin; but not thinking himself safe there, plundered and burnt the palace, and then fled with the immense treasure he had got. What became of him afterwards we are not told; but the young Tartar monarch was immediately declared emperor of China, his father, Tsong-te, having died almost as soon as he set his foot in that empire.

The new emperor, named Shun-chi or Xun-chi, began his reign with rewarding U-san-ghey with the title of king, and assigned him Si-gnan-fu, capital of Shen-si, for his residence. This, however, did not hinder U-san-ghey from repenting of his error in calling the Tartars, or, as he himself used to phrase it, In sending for lions to drive away dogs. In 1674 he formed a very strong alliance against them, and had probably prevailed if his allies had been fulfilled; but they treacherously deserted him one after another; which so affected him that he died soon after. In 1681 Hong-wha, son to U-san-ghey, who continued his efforts against the Tartars, was reduced to such straits that he put an end to his own life.

During this space there had been some resistance made to the Tartars in many of the provinces. Two princes, of Chinese extraction, had, at different times, been proclaimed:

emperors, but both of them were overcome and put to death. In 1682 the whole 15 provinces were so effectually subdued, that the emperor Kang-hi, successor to Shun-chi, determined to visit his native domininions of Tartary. He was accompanied by an army of 70,000 men, and continued for some months taking the diversion of hunting. This he continued to do for some years; and in his journeys took father Verbeist along with him; by which means we have a better description of these countries than could possibly have been otherwise obtained. This prince was a great encourager of learning and of the Christian religion; in favour of which last, he published a decree, dated in 1692. In 1716, however, he revived some obsolete laws against the Christians; nor could the Jesuits, with all their art, preserve the footing they had got in China. The causes of this alteration in his resolutions are, by the missionaries, said to have been the slanders of the mandarins; but, from the known character of the Jesuits, it will be readily believed that there was something more at bottom. This emperor died in 1722, and was succeeded by his son Yon-ching; who not only gave no encouragement to the missionaries, but persecuted all Christians, of whatever denomination, not excepting even those of the imperial race. At the beginning of his reign he banished all the Jesuits into the city of Canton, and in 1732 they were banished from thence into Ma-kau, a little island inhabited by the Portuguese, but subject to China. He died in 1736: but though the Jesuits entertained great hopes from his successor, they have not yet met with any considerable success.

This emperor, whose name was Chien-long, was in the possession of a vigorous old age, when lord Macartney visited China. His long reign had been distinguished both by the wisdom of his laws and the extent of his foreign conquests, which comprehend Tonquin, Tibet, and Eluths or Western Tartars. He has thus added an extent of territory to the Chinese empire, nearly equal to that of which he was possessed at his accession to the throne, but inferior in riches, cultivation, and number of inhabitants.

The beginning of the sixteenth century was marked by a considerable revolution in the empire of Japan. The imperial dignity had been enjoyed for a considerable time by a regular succession of princes, under the title of Daiross, a name supposed to have been derived from Dairo, the head of that family. About the year 1500 a dreadful civil war broke out, which lasted many years, and nearly ruined the empire. During these distractions, Tayckoy, a common soldier of obscure birth, subdued all his opponents, reduced their cities and castles, and raised himself to the imperial dignity. The Dairo not being in a condition to oppose his progress, was obliged to submit to his terms, which were, that the Dairo should possess the supreme power in the matters of religion, while Tayckoy and his successors had the civil and military authority with the title of Cabo or prime minister.

The eastern peninsula has, during the last 70 years, been the scene of some remarkable revolutions. The rival nations of Pegu and Ava having long carried on the most cruel wars with each other, which have only been interrupted by the ascendancy which one of these powers has alternately obtained over the other. The supremacy of the Birmans over the Peguers continued throughout the 17th and during the first 40 years of the last

century, when the Peguers, in the Provinces of Dalla, Martaban, Tongo, and Prome, revolted; a civil war ensued, which was prosecuted on both sides with savage ferocity. The Peguers, in 1752, completed the conquest of Asa, the capital being reduced after a short siege, and the Birman king taken prisoner, with the greater part of his family. Matters at first bore the appearance of tranquillity and submission, but Alompra, a Birman, of low extraction, who was continued by the conqueror in the command of an inconsiderable village, still harboured hopes of the emancipation. With 100 devoted followers he fortified his town, and secretly collected strength, till at length, availing himself of the resentment excited by some particular act of indignity, he drove out the Pegu part of the garrison, and commenced an open insurrection. His countrymen flew to his assistance, and his measures were so far successful that he overturned the kingdom of Pegu, and raised the Birman empire to that state of prosperity in which it has been described in a preceding chapter.

CHAPTER VII.

The religions of the East of Asia.

THE most antient religion of China is supposed, with good reason, to have been that of the patriarchs, which remained here for a number of ages without experiencing much adulteration.

According to the Chinese books the Supreme Being is the principal of every thing that exists, and the father of all living; he is eternal, unchangeable, and independent; his power knows no bounds; his sight equally comprehends the past, present, and the future, penetrating even into the inmost recesses of the heart. Heaven and earth are under his government; all events, all revolutions, are the consequences of his will; he is pure, holy, and impartial; wickedness offends his sight; but he beholds, with an eye of complacency the virtuous actions of men.

The purity of the antient Chinese religion has, however, been long contaminated by many idolatrous and fanatical sects. Among these, one named Tao-sse was founded by a philosopher, called Lao-kiun or Lao-tse, who was born 605 before Christ. He died in an advanced old age, leaving to his disciples a book entitled Tao-te, being a collection of 5000 sentences. His morality has a great resemblance to that of Epicurus. It consists principally in banishing all vehement desires and passions, capable of disturbing the peace and tranquillity of the soul. According to him the care of every wise man ought to be only to endeavour to live free from grief and pain, and to glide gently down the stream of life devoid of anxiety and care. To arrive at this happy state, he advises his followers to banish all thoughts of the past, and to abstain from every vain and useless inquiry concerning futurity, as well as all tormenting thoughts of ambition, avarice, &c. It was found by the disciples of this philosopher, however, that all their endeavours to obtain a perfect tranquillity of mind were vain, as long as the thoughts of death intervened; they therefore declared it possible to discover a composition, from which drink might be made that would render mankind immortal. Hence they were led to the study of chemistry; and like the western alchemists wearied themselves in search of the philosopher's stone until at last they gave themselves up to all the extravagances of magic.

The desire of avoiding death, together with the credulity natural to unenlightened minds, quickly produced a number of converts to the sect of Tao-sse. Magical practices, the invocation of spirits, and the art of foretelling events by divination, quickly diffused themselves over the empire, and the imbecillity of the emperors contributed to propagate the deception. Temples consecrated to spirits quickly reared their heads in every corner in the empire; and two of the most celebrated of the sect were authorised to maintain public worship there, after the form which had been prescribed by their master. At the same time they distributed and sold at a dear rate images of the imaginary spirits, with which they had peopled the heavens and the earth. These were by

their command worshipped as so many deities, independent of the Supreme Being ; and in the like manner the antient emperors were invoked as gods.

Being patronised by the emperors of several dynasties, this sect became more and more powerful. At last they had the impudence to affix, during the night-time, to one of the gates of the imperial city, a book, filled with mystic characters and magical figures. At break of day they informed the emperor of the sudden appearance of this book, and publicly declared that it was fallen from heaven. This trick easily imposed upon the weak prince. He immediately repaired, with a numerous train, to the spot where the sacred volume appeared ; and having taken it in his hands in a respectful manner, carried it in triumph to his palace, where he shut it up in a golden box. Another emperor carried his reverence for the sect to such a height of impiety and extravagance as to order a celebrated Tao-sse to be publicly worshipped, under the name of Chang-ti. This sect, thus patronised by princes, and accommodated to the credulity of the vulgar, continued to gain ground, in spite of every opposition from the wiser part of the people, and is still very powerful in China. At present they offer up three different victims, a hog, a fowl, and a fish, to a spirit whom they invoke. Various ceremonies, such as howling, drawing fantastical figures upon paper, making a hideous noise with kettles and drums, are used in their incantations ; and though it may really be believed that they are, for the most part unsuccessful, yet their credit is still kept up by those cases in which they succeed by accident.

The chief of the Tao-sse is invested by government with the dignity of grand mandarin, which is enjoyed by his successors ; he resides in a sumptuous palace, in a town of Kiang-si ; and the superstitious confidence of the people attracts an immense number thither from all parts of the empire. Some arrive in order to be cured of diseases, others to get an insight into futurity. The impostor distributes to them small bits of paper, filled with magical chacraters ; and the ignorant wretches depart, well satisfied, without grudging the expence of their journey, though ever so long.

A still more pernicious and more widely diffused sect is that of the idol Fo, which came originally from India. The Tao-sse had promised to the brother of one of the emperors of China to introduce him to a communication with spirits. The credulous prince having heard of a great spirit, named Fo, who resided in India, prevailed on his brother to send an embassy thither. On the arrival of the ambassadors, however, they could find only two worshippers of this deity, both of whom they brought to China. Several images of Fo were also collected at the same time, and these, together with some canonical books of the Indians, were placed on a white horse, and carried in procession to the imperial city.

This superstition was introduced into China about the 65th year of the christian era, and soon made vast progress. One of its principal doctrines is that of the metempsychosis or transmigration of souls, of which M. Grosier thinks he was the inventor, and that Pythagoras, who travelled into several parts of India, had borrowed the doctrine from him. The account given of him by the bouzes is, that finding himself at the age of 70 oppressed with infirmities, he called his disciples together, and told them he was unwilling

to leave the world without communicating the secret and hidden mysteries of his doctrine; which were, in short, that all things proceeded from a vacuum and nothing, and to that they must return. This doctrine produced a corresponding mode of action, or rather of inaction, in those who believed it: for thus the great happiness of man was made to consist in absolute annihilation; and therefore the nearer he could bring himself to this state during life, the happier he was supposed to be.

The common doctrine, however, which admits of a distinction between good and evil, finds more proselytes among the vulgar, whose situation in life will not allow them to spend their time in perpetual idleness. According to this the righteous will be rewarded and the wicked punished after death. They say also that the god Fo came to save mankind, and to expiate their sins; and that he alone can procure them a happy regeneration in the life to come. Five precepts are likewise inculcated on those who adopt this doctrine: 1. Not to kill any living creature. 2. Not to take the goods of another. 3. Not to pollute themselves by uncleanness. 4. Not to lie. 5. Not to drink wine. Above all they recommend to them to perform acts of mercy, to treat their bonzes well, build temples, &c.

The doctrine of metempsychosis has introduced into China an infinite number of idols, who are all worshipped on the supposition that the spirit of Fo has transmigrated into the animals they represent. These idols, however, seem not to be worshipped with great sincerity; but like the images of saints in the more superstitious countries of Europe, are beaten and thrown in the dirt when their votaries happen not to obtain their desires, which they impute to the obstinacy or weakness of the idol. Nay M. Grosier gives an account of one man, who having ineffectually paid a sum of money to the bonzes of a certain idol for the cure of his daughter, brought a formal accusation against the idol itself; and in spite of all that the bonzes could say in its behalf, got its worship suppressed throughout the province.

The bonzes of China are represented as a most avaricious and hypocritical race of men, ready to practise every kind of villany, and even to subject themselves to the most intolerable tortures in order to obtain money from the compassion of the public, when they cannot get it in any other way; and an edict of one of the emperors is cited by M. Grosier, by which great numbers of their religious houses were suppressed. In order to perpetuate their sect, they purchase young children, whom they take care to instruct in all the mysteries and tricks of their profession; but excepting this they are in general very ignorant, and few of them would be able to give any tolerable account of the tenets of their own sect. They are not subject to a regular hierarchy, but acknowledge superiors among them, whom they call grand bonzes, who have the first place in all religious assemblies at which they happen to be present, and great profit is derived from certain religious clubs, both of men and women, at which the bonzes are always called to assist. Their wealth is likewise augmented by pilgrimages to certain places, where there are temples more or less reverenced, and where a multitude of absurd ceremonies are performed. These bonzes, as may be easily imagined, are inveterate enemies to the progress of Christianity, telling the most absurd stories concerning the missionaries; as that they pluck out the eyes of their converts to construct telliscopes with. The literati, however,

We shall conclude this detail of the Chinese religion with giving an account of one other superstition, which seems peculiar to the nation. It is named fong-choni, which signifies wind and water. By this they mean the lucky or unlucky situation of a house, burying-place, &c. If any imprudent person has built a house close to that of a Chinese, in such a manner that the angle formed by its roof flanks the wall or roof of the former house, the proprietor ever after lives in terror of utter ruin and destruction from the malignant influence of that angle. An implacable hatred instantly commences betwixt the two families, and often gives rise to a law-suit, which furnishes matter of discussion for some of the superior tribunals. If no redress can be had at law, however, the Chinese is then reduced to the necessity of erecting on the top of his house an enormous image of a dragon or some other monster, with its mouth gaping towards the angle, and as it were threatening to swallow it up; after which the apprehensions of the proprietor begin to subside, and tranquillity is restored to the family. In this manner the governor of Kien-tchang secured himself from the influence of the church of the Jesuits, which, being built on an eminence, overlooked his palace. Not depending, however, entirely on the good offices of his tutelary dragon, he also took the wise precaution of altering his principal apartments, and raising, at the distance of 200 paces from the church, a kind of large facade, three stories high. But unluckily the death of his successor was attributed to this facade; for the mandarin, being attacked with a disorder in the breast, which made him spit up a white phlegm, this symptom was thought to be owing to the walls of the facade, which were very white, and which were forthwith painted black. The salutary precaution, however, happened to be taken too late; for the governor died, notwithstanding the black colour of the walls.

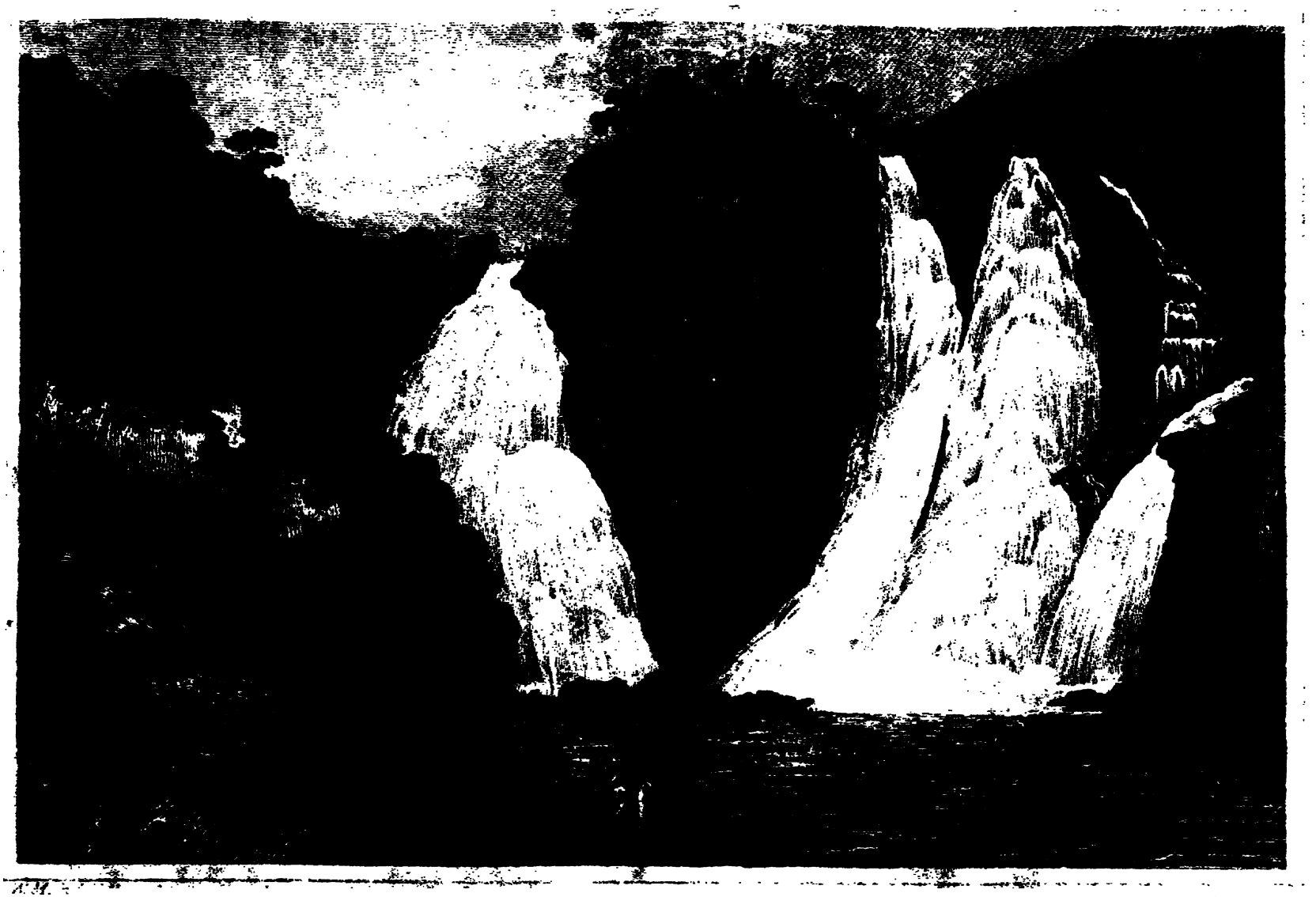
"We should never have done (says M. Grosier) were we to relate all superstitious ideas of the Chinese respecting the lucky and unlucky situation of houses, the quarter which doors ought to front, and the plan and day proper for constructing the stoves in which they cook their rice." But the object on which they employ their greatest care is the choice of the ground and situation for a burying-place. Some quacks follow no other profession than that of pointing out hills and mountains, which have an aspect favourable for works of that kind. When a Chinese is persuaded of the truth of such information, there is no sum which he would not give to be in possession of the fortunate spot. The greater part of the Chinese are of opinion that all the happiness and misfortunes of life depend upon the fong-choni.

A colony of Jews was established in China about the year 206 before Christ; but they are now reduced to a small number of families at Cai-song, the capital of the province of Honan. The Mahometans have multiplied much more than the Jews. It is above 600 years since they first entered the empire, where they have formed different establishments. At first their number was augmented only by marriages; but for some time past they have been more particularly attentive to the extending of their sect and propagating their doctrine. The principal means employed for this purpose are to purchase a great number of children, brought up in idolatry, whom their poor parents are glad to part with; and these they circumcise, and afterwards instruct in the principles of their religion. During the time of a famine, which desolated the province of Chang-

they procured wives, built houses, and even formed whole villages of them. They are now become so numerous, that in the places where they reside they entirely exclude every inhabitant who does not believe in their prophet and frequent a mosque.

The religion of the Eastern peninsula is principally that of Boodh or Gandma, which is only a branch of the Bramhan religion, which will be described in our account of Hindostan.

Since the Portuguese discovered the way to India by sea, various missions have been established by different orders of catholics, for the purpose of converting the inhabitants of China, Japan, and the peninsula beyond the Ganges. Though these efforts have not been so far successful as to change the established religion in any of these countries, yet there are at this day many thousand natives of China and Siam who profess to venerate the name of Jesus. It is much to be lamented that the principles of the Roman church have hitherto prevented the circulation of the scriptures among their converts; since, by that means, a foundation might have been laid for the most extensive benefit to several hundred millions of our fellow men.



VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK VII.

THE SOUTH OF ASIA, *comprehending* HINDOSTAN, PERSIA, ARABIA AND KHARAZM.

CHAPTER I

HINDOSTAN.

HINDOSTAN is bounded on the north by Great and Little Thibet; on the south by the hither peninsula of India, part of the Indian sea, and the Bay of Bengal, on the west by Persia; and on the east by Thibet and the farther peninsula. It is situated between 84° and 102° of east longitude; and between 21° and 36° of north latitude; being in length about 1204 miles, and in breadth 960, though in some places much less.

Towards the north Hindostan is very cold and barren; but towards the south very hot and fertile in corn, rice, fruits, and other vegetables. The northern provinces are very mountainous and sandy; while the southern are, for the most part, level and well watered with several rivers.

The most remarkable mountains are those which surround it on three sides. Those on the west, separating it from Persia, called in general Soleyman Kug or the mountains of Soleyman, are of a vast height as well as breadth, and are only passable in certain places, through which roads have been made for the sake of commerce. The chief are those which lead to Kabul, Gazna, and Kandahar. This great chain of mountains is inhabited by different nations, the principal of which are the Afghans or Patans and the Baluches, who have extended themselves on the side of India as well as Persia. The mountains on the north are called Nagrakut, Hinia, or Mus Tag, which has an affinity with Imaus, and by other names, which are given also in common to the mountains on each side, separating Hindostan from Thibet. The very prospect of these mountains is frightful, being nothing but hideous precipices perpetually covered with snow, and not to be crossed without the greatest danger and difficulty.

The most remarkable rivers of Hindostan are the Indus and Ganges. The former is called by the orientals Send, Sind, or Sindi. It rises in the mountains to the north or north-east of Hindostan; whence, after a long course, first to the south and then to the south west, it falls into the Persian sea, below Lower Bander, by several mouths. In its course it receives several other large rivers, as the Nilah, Jamal, Behat, and Lakka.

The Ganges, called in the Indies Ganga, rises in the kingdom of Tibet: entering Hindostan about the 30th degree of latitude, it runs first south-eastward by the cities of Bekaner, Minapor, Halabas, Benares, and Patna, to Rajah Mahl, where it divides into two branches. The eastern having passed by Dakka, the capital of Bengal, enters the gulph of that name about Chatigan. The western, descending by Kossum, Bazar, and Hughly, falls into the gulph below Shandernagor, towards Pipeli.

Many of the Jews and antient Christians believed this river to be the Pison, one of the four mentioned in scripture as the boundaries of the terrestial paradise. The Indians retain the greatest reverence for its waters, going in crowds from the remotest parts of the country to wash in them, from a persuasion that they deface from all the spots of sin. The reason of this is because they imagine this river does not take its source from the bosom of the earth, but descends from heaven into the paradise of Devendre, and from thence into Hindostan. Nothing is more childish than the fables of the Bramins on this subject, yet the people swallow them all. The Mogul and prince of Golconda drink no other water than that of the Ganges: foreigners, on the contrary, pretend that it is very unwholesome, and that it cannot be safely drank till it is first boiled. There are a great number of superb pagodas on the banks of the Ganges, which are immensely rich. At certain festivals there has been sometimes a concourse of 100,000 people who come to bathe in it. But what principally distinguishes this river, besides its greatness and rapidity, is the gold it brings down in its sands and throws on its banks; and the precious stones and pearls it produces, not only in itself but in the gulf of Bengal, into which it discharges its waters, and which abound therewith. The Chun or Jemma, the Guderasu, the Persilis, Lakia, and several other rivers discharge themselves into it during its course.

The weather and seasons are, for the general, very regular in this spacious country; the winds blowing constantly six months from the south and six from the north, with very little variation. The months of April, May, and the beginning of June, till the rains fall, are so extremely hot that the reflection from the ground is apt to blister one's face; and but for the breeze or small gale of wind which blows every day, there would be no living in that country for people bred in northern climates; for excepting in the rainy season, the coldest day is hotter there at noon than the hottest day in England. However very surprising changes of heat and cold sometimes happen within a few hours; so that a stifling hot day is succeeded by a night cold enough to produce a thin ice on the water, and that night by a noon as scorching as the preceding. Sometimes in the dry season, before the rains, the winds blow with such extreme violence that they carry vast quantities of dust and sand into the air, which appear black, like clouds charged with rain; but fall down in dry showers, filling the eyes, ears, and nostrils of those among whom they descend, and penetrate every chest, cabinet, or cupboard, in the houses or tents, by the key-hole and crevices.

From Surat to Agra and beyond it, the rains generally begin and end with most furious storms of thunder and lightning. During these three months it rains usually every day; and sometimes for a week together without intermission: by this means the land is enriched like Egypt by the Nile. Although the land looked before like the barren sands of the Arabian deserts; yet, in a few days after those showers begin to fall, the surface appears covered with verdure. When the rainy season is over, the sky becomes per-

fectly serene again, and scarce one cloud appears all the other nine months; however a refreshing dew falls every night during that dry interval, which cools the air and cherishes the earth.

The produce of Hindostan is very rich in every kind, whether it be fossil, vegetable, or animal. Besides other precious stones found in it there is a diamond mine at the town of Soumelpur, in Bengal. Quarries of Theban stone are so plentiful in the Mogul's empire that there are both mosques and pagods built entirely of it. Some travellers tell us there are mines of lead, iron, and copper, and even silver; but those of the last, if there be any, need not to be opened, since the bullion of all nations is sunk in this empire, which will take nothing else in exchange for her commodities, and prohibits the exporting it again. They till the ground with oxen and foot-ploughs, sowing in May and the beginning of June, that all may be over before the rains; and reaping in November and December, which, with them, are the most temperate months in the year. The land is no where inclosed, excepting a little near towns and villages. The grass is never mowed to make hay, but cut off the ground, either green or withered, as they have occasion to use it. Wheat, rice, barley, and other grain, grow here in plenty, and are very good. The country abounds no less in fruits, as pomegranates, citrons, dates, grapes, almonds, and cocoa-nuts; plums, those especially called mirabolans; plantanes, which in shape resemble a slender cucumber, and in taste excel a Norwich pear; mangos, an excellent fruit, resembling an apricot, but larger: ananas or pine apples; lemons and oranges, but not so good as in other countries; variety of pears and apples in the northern parts; and the tamarind-tree, the fruit of which is contained in a pod resembling those of beans. There are many other kinds of fruit-trees peculiar to the country. But the valuable trees are the cotton and mulberry, on account of the wealth they bring the natives from the manufactures of calicoes and silks. They plant abundance of sugar-canes here as well as tobacco; but the latter is not so rich and strong as that of America, for want of knowing how to cure and order it.

Hindostan affords also plenty of ginger, together with carrots, potatoes, onions, garlics, and other roots known to us, besides small roots and herbs for sallads; but their flowers, though beautiful to look at, have no scent, excepting roses and some few other kinds.

There is a great variety of animals in this country both wild and tame; of the former are elephants, rhinoceroses, lions, tygers, leopards, wolves, jackals, and the like. The jackals dig up and eat dead bodies, and make a hideous noise in the night. The rhinoceros is not common in the Mogul's empire; but elephants are very numerous; some 12, 14, or 15 feet high. There is plenty of venison and game of several kinds; as red-deer, fallow-deer, elks, antelopes, kids, hares, and such like. None of these are imparked, but all in common, and may be any body's who will be at the pains to take them. Among the wild animals also may be reckoned the musk-animal, apes, and monkeys.

Hindostan affords variety of beasts for carriage, as camels, dromedaries, mules, asses, horses, oxen, and buffaloes. Most of the horses are white, and many curiously dappled, pied, and spotted all over. The flesh of the oxen is very sweet and tender. Being very tame, many use them as they do horses to ride on. Instead of a bit they put one or two small strings through the gristle of the nostrils, and fastening the ends to a rope, use it instead of a bridle, which is held up by a bunch of gristly flesh, which he has

on the fore part of his back. They saddle him as they do a horse; and if spurred a little he will go as fast. These are generally made use of all over the Indies; and with them only are drawn waggons, coaches, and chariots. Some of these oxen will travel 15 leagues in a day. They are of two sorts; one six feet high, which are rare; another, called dwarfs, which are only three. In some places, where the roads are stony, they shoe their oxen when they are to travel far. The buffalo's skin makes excellent buff, and the female yields very good milk; but their flesh is neither so palatable nor wholesome as beef. The sheep of Hindostan have large heavy tails, and their flesh is very good, but their wool coarse.

This country is much infested with reptiles and insects; some of a noxious kind, as scorpions, snakes, and rats; but the lizards, which are of a green colour, are not hurtful. Snakes and serpents, we are told, are sometimes employed to dispatch criminals, especially such as have been guilty of some atrocious crime; that kind of death being attended with the most grievous torture. The most troublesome insects in this hot country are flies, musketoes, and chinches or bugs, the first by day and the others in the night; when they offend no less by their stench than their bite.

The Hindoos or inhabitants of Hindostan are divided into four tribes; 1. The Bramin; 2. the Khatry; 3. the Bhyse; and 4. the Soodera. All these have distinct and separate offices, and cannot, according to their laws, intermingle with each other; but for certain offences they are subject to the loss of their cast, which is reckoned the highest punishment they can suffer; and hence is formed a kind of fifth cast, named Pariars, on the coast of Coromandel, but in the Shanscrit or sacred language Chandalas. These are esteemed the dregs of the people, and are never employed but in the meanest offices. There is besides a general division, which pervades the four casts indiscriminately; and which is taken from the worship of their gods Vishnou and Sheevah; the worshippers of the former being named Vishnou-bukht; of the latter Sheevah-bukht.

Of these four casts the Bramins are counted the foremost in every respect; and all the laws have such a partiality towards them as cannot but induce us to suppose that they have had the principal hand in framing them. They are not, however, allowed to assume the sovereignty; the religious ceremony and the instruction of the people being their peculiar province. They alone are allowed to read the Veda or sacred books; the Khatries or cast next in dignity being only allowed to hear them read; while the other two can only read the Satras or commentaries upon them. As for the poor Chandalas they dare not enter a temple, or be present at any religious ceremony.

In point of precedency the Bramins claim a superiority even to the princes; the latter being chosen out of the Khatry or second cast. A rajah will receive with respect the food that is prepared by a Bramin; but the latter will eat nothing that has been prepared by any member of an inferior cast. The punishment of a Bramin for any crime is much milder than if he had belonged to another tribe; and the greatest crime that can be committed is the murder of a Bramin. No magistrate must desire the death of one of these sacred persons, or cut off one of his limbs. They must be readily admitted into the presence even of princes whenever they please; when passengers in a boat, they must be the first to enter and go out; and the watermen must besides carry them for nothing; every one who meets them on the road being likewise obliged to give place to them.

A MAN and WOMAN of HINDOOSTAN with a TEMPLE for HINDOO WORSHIP.

All the priests are chosen from among this order; such as are not admitted to the sacerdotal function being employed as secretaries and accountants. These can never afterwards become priests, but continue to be greatly reverenced by the other casts.

The Khatry or second cast are those from among whom the sovereigns are chosen. The Bhyse or Banians, who constitute the third cast, have the charge of commercial affairs; and the Soodera or fourth cast, the most numerous of all, comprehend the labourers and artisans. These last are divided into as many classes as there are followers of different arts; all the children being invariably brought up to the profession of their fathers; and it being absolutely unlawful for them ever to alter it afterwards.

No Hindoo is allowed to quit the cast in which he was born upon any account. All of them are very scrupulous with regard to diet; but the Bramins much more so than any of the rest. They eat no flesh nor shed blood; which, we are informed by Porphyry and Clemens Alexandrinus was the case in their time. Their ordinary food is rice and other vegetables, dressed with ghee (a kind of butter, melted and refined, so as to be capable of being kept for a long time), and seasoned with ginger and other spices. The food which they most esteem, however, is milk, as coming from the cow; an animal for which they have the most extravagant veneration, insomuch that it is enacted in the code of Gentoo laws, that any one who exacts labour from a bullock that is hungry or thirsty, or that shall oblige him to labour when fatigued or out of season, is liable to be fined by the magistrates. The other casts, though less rigid, abstain very religiously from what is forbidden them; nor will they eat any thing provided by a person of an inferior cast, or by one of a different religion. Though they may eat some kinds of flesh and fish, yet it is counted a virtue to abstain from them all.

The men generally shave their heads and beards, leaving only a pair of small whiskers; and a lock on the back part of their head, which they take great care to preserve. In Kashmere and some other places they let their beards grow to the length of two inches. They wear turbans on their heads; but the Bramins, who officiate in the temples, commonly go with their heads uncovered, and the upper part of the body naked; round their shoulder they hang their sacred string, called Zennar, made of a kind of perennial cotton, and composed of a certain number of threads, of a determined length. The Khatries wear also a string of this kind, but composed of fewer threads; the Bhyse have one with still fewer threads; but the Sooderas are not allowed to wear any string. The other dress of the Bramins consist of a piece of white cotton cloth, wrapped about the loins, descending below the knee, but lower on the left than on the right side. In cold weather they sometimes put a red cap on their heads, and wrap a shawl round their bodies. The Khatries and most other of the inhabitants of this country wear also pieces of cotton cloth wrapped about them, but which cover the upper as well as the lower part of the body. Ear-rings and bracelets are worn by the men as well as women; and they are fond of ornamenting themselves with diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones when they can procure them. They wear slippers on their feet, of fine woollen cloth or velvet, frequently embroidered with gold and silver; those of princes being sometimes adorned with precious stones. The lower classes wear sandals or slippers of coarse woollen cloth or leather. These slippers are always put off on going into any apartment

being left at the door, or given to an attendant; nevertheless the Hindoos make no complaints of the Europeans for not putting off their shoes when they come into their houses, which must certainly appear very uncouth to them.

The dress of the women in Hindostan consists of a close jacket, which covers their breasts, but perfectly shows their form. The sleeves are tight, and reach half way to the elbows, with a narrow border, painted or embroidered all round the edges. Instead of a petticoat they have a piece of white cotton cloth wrapt round the loins, and reaching near the ancle on the one side but not quite so low on the other. A white piece of muslin is thrown over the right shoulder, which, passing under the left arm, is crossed round the middle, and hangs down to the feet. The hair is usually rolled up in a knot or braid towards the back part of the head; and some have curls hanging before and behind the ears. They wear bracelets on their arms, rings in their ears, and on their fingers, toes, and ancles, with sometimes a small one in their nostril.

The houses of the Hindoos make a worse appearance than could be supposed from their ingenuity in other respects. In the southern parts of the country the houses are only of one story. On each side of the door, towards the street, is a narrow gallery, covered by the slope of the roof, which projects over it, and which, as far as the gallery extends, is supported by pillars of brick or wood. The floor of this gallery is raised about 30 inches above the level of the street, and the porters or bearers of Palankeens, with the foot soldiers named Peons, who commonly hire themselves to noblemen. This entrance leads into a court, which is also surrounded by a gallery like the former. On one side of the court is a large room, on a level with the floor of the gallery, open in front, and spread with mats and carpets, covered with white cotton cloth, where the master of the house receives visits and transacts business. From this court there are entrances by very small doors to the private apartments. In the northern parts houses of two or three stories are commonly met with. Over all the country also we meet with the ruins of palaces, which evidently show the magnificence of former times.

The principal article of food throughout all Hindostan is rice, and of consequence the cultivation of it forms the principal object of agriculture. In this the most important requisite is plenty of water; and when there happens to be a scarcity in this respect, a famine must be the consequence. To prevent this as far as possible, a vast number of tanks and water courses are to be met with throughout the country, though in some places these are too much neglected, and gradually going to decay. After the rice is grown to a certain length, it is pulled up, and transplanted in fields of about 100 yards square, separated from each other by ridges of earth; which are daily supplied with water, let in upon them from the neighbouring tanks. When the water happens to fall below the level of the channels made to receive it, it is raised by a simple machine, named picoti, the construction of which is as follows. A piece of timber is fixed upright in the ground, and forked, so as to admit another piece to move transversely in it, by means of a strong pin. The transverse timber is flat on one side, and has pieces of wood across it in manner of steps. At one end of this timber there is a large bucket, at the other a weight. A man, walking down the steps, throws the bucket into the well or tank; by going up, and by means of the weight, he raises it; and another person, standing below, empties

An INDIAN MAUSOLEUM in the MYSORE, with a BANYAN TREE.

it into a channel, made to convey the water into the fields. The man who moves the machine may support himself by long bamboos, that are fixed, in the way of a railing, from the top of the piece of upright timber towards the wall.

The Hindoos are remarkable for their ingenuity in all kinds of handicraft; but their utensils are simple, and, in many respects, inconvenient; so that incredible labour and patience are necessary for the accomplishment of any piece of work; and for this the Hindoos are very remarkable. Lacquering and gilding are used all over the country, and must have been used in very early ages; though in some places the lacquering is brought to much greater perfection than in others.

The painting of the Hindoos is defective, from their ignorance of the rules of perspective. Their music is also considered as inferior to the European, though they have a considerable variety of instruments. The knowledge of the sciences is confined to those learned Bramins, whom they call pundits or doctors. These are the only persons who understand the Sanscrit or sacred language, in which their antient books are written. Their metaphysics resemble that of some antient Greek philosophers. They believe the human soul to be an emanation from the deity as light and heat are from the sun. They have been astronomical observers for a long series of ages, but though they probably were, in former ages, acquainted with this island, their geographical knowledge is very contracted.

The religion of the Hindoos is contained in certain books called Vedas, and though now involved in superstition, seems to have been originally pure, inculcating the belief of an eternal being, possessed of every divine perfection. Their subordinate deities, Brimha, Vishnou, and Sheeva, are only representatives of the wisdom, goodness, and power of the supreme god Brama. All created things they suppose to be types of the attributes of Brama, whom they call the principles of truth, the spirit of wisdom, and the supreme being, so that it is probable that all their idols were at first only designed to represent these attributes. They believe in ten Avatars or incarnations of the deity, nine of which have taken place for the punishment of tyrants or removing some great natural calamity, and the tenth is to take place at the dissolution of the universe. Several of these avatars inculcate the transmigration of souls, and the ninth of them, which forbids animal sacrifices, gave rise to the religion of Boodha, Gaudma, or Fo, which has been mentioned in the last chapter, so prevalent in different forms over all the East of Asia. Their mythological tales afford the most striking proofs of a patriarchal origin, and confirm the testimony of the scriptures respecting the creation, the flood, the tower of Babel, and the promise that the seed of the woman should bruize the head of the serpent.

The deities of the Hindoos are extremely numerous, and there is reason to believe derived from the same source with those of Italy and Greece.

Great numbers of devotees are to be met with every where through Hindostan. Every cast is allowed to assume this way of life, excepting the Chandalahs, who are excluded. Those held most in esteem are named Seniasses and Jogeys. The former are allowed no other clothing but what suffices for covering their nakedness, nor have they any worldly goods besides a pitcher and staff; but though they are strictly enjoined to meditate on the truths contained in the sacred writings, they are strictly forbidden to arrive

about them. They must eat but once a day, and that very sparingly, of rice or other vegetables; they must also show the most perfect indifference about hunger, thirst, heat, cold, or any thing whatever relative to this world; looking forward with a continual desire to the separation of the soul from the body. Should any of them fail in this extravagant self-denial, he is rendered so much more criminal by the attempt, as he neglected the duties of ordinary life for those of another, which he was not able to accomplish. The Yogeys are bound to much the same rules, and both subject themselves to the most extravagant penances. Some will keep their arms constantly stretched over their heads, till they become quite withered and incapable of motion; others keep them crossed over their breast during life; while others, by keeping their hands constantly closed, have them quite pierced through by the growth of their nails. Some chain themselves to trees or particular spots of ground, which they never quit; others resolve never to lie down, but sleep leaning against a tree; but the most curious penance perhaps on record is that of a Yogey, who measured the distance between Benares and Jaggernaut with the length of his body, lying down and rising alternately. Many of these enthusiasts will throw themselves in the way of the chariots of Vishnou or Sheevah, which are brought forth in procession, to celebrate the feast of a temple, and drawn by several hundreds of men. Thus the wretched devotees are in an instant crushed to pieces. Others devote themselves to the flames, in order to show their regard to some of their idols, or to appease the wrath of one whom they suppose to be offended.

The provinces into which Hindostan is divided, and the most celebrated cities they contain can be with greater propriety, described, when we have unfolded the means by which they came into the hands of their present possessors. We shall therefore conclude the present chapter with an account of the island of Ceylon, which has lately become an appendage to the British empire.

Ceylon is about 250 miles in length and 200 in breadth. It abounds in trees and shrubs, valuable both on account of their timber and the gums or spices they produce. Among these Mr. Ives enumerates the euphorbium, tulip-tree, ebony, red-wood, cassia, cocoa-nut, cotton, lime, mango, citron, coffee, the trees producing balsam of capivi, gum gamboge, lac, and cenquenomale. This last is as yet unknown in Europe; but, according to the information of a Dutch surgeon, an oil or balsam is produced from it by distillation, which is of great use in paralytic complaints. There is also another gum, named badule, which has been but lately discovered, and of which the use is as yet unknown. Here is also the black and yellow teak, the wood of which is of a most beautiful colour, but so hard that the cutting of it proves destructive to the carpenter's tools. But the most remarkable as well as the most useful of the vegetable productions of Ceylon is the cinnamon-tree, which grows wild in every wood on the south-west part of the island. The very young trees are not fit for rinding, and the old ones are cut down for fire-wood. The common flowering shrubs, of which the whole island is full, send forth a most agreeable fragrance every morning and evening. It abounds with high hills, between which the soil is a fat red earth; and the valleys are extremely pleasant, having a clear rivulet running through almost every one of them. Thus the finest fruits grow in great plenty, and may be had at the most trifling rates; a pine-apple being bought for less than a penny, and so of the rest. Other provisions are almost equally cheap; a dozen of fowls or five ducks being

sold for a rupee, not quite half a crown of English money. Here the Dutch shew a poisonous fruit, called by them Adam's apple. In shape it resembles a quarter of an apple, cut out with two insides a little convex, and a continued ridge along the outer ridges; and is of a beautiful orange colour. Pepper, ginger, and cardamoms are also produced here; as well as five kinds of rice, which ripen one after another.

Ceylon produces also topazes, garnets, rubies, and other precious stones, which are discovered by washing the soil wherein they grow. It has likewise ores of copper, iron, and probably of tin, with veins of black crystal.

Common deer are found in this island in great abundance, as well as Guinea-deer; but the horned cattle are both very small and scarce; and six of them weighed altogether but 714 pounds, and one of these weighed only 70 pounds. They have, however, the largest and best elephants in the world; and their woods are infested by tygers, the most terrible of all ravenous beasts. They abound also with snakes of a monstrous size; one of which has been known to destroy a tyger, and devour him at one meal. Mr. Ives says he saw one 15 feet long, and 30 inches in circumference. Spiders, centipedes, and scorpions also grow here to an enormous size. A scorpion taken out of a piece of wood was eight inches long from head to tail, exclusive of the claws; the shell was as hard as that of a crab; and our author killed a centipede more than seven inches long. Here the mantis or creeping leaf is met with; which is supposed to be a species of grasshoppers, having every member we see in common insects, though in shape and appearance it greatly resembles a leaf. It is of a green colour. The sea-coasts abound with fish, which are to be had very cheap.

The Ceylonese make use of boats, hollowed out of the trunks of trees, which are about 12 or 14 feet long, but only as many inches broad within. The tree part in the bottom is much larger; but when the boat, on account of the size of the tree, is too small, they make a trough on the top of it, square at both ends. Some boats, however, are much larger, being built with two trees, and with these they coast along shore; the others are for fishermen.

CHAPTER II.

PERSIA.

PERSIA extends in length, from the mouth of the river Araxes to that of the river Indus, about 1840 of our miles; and in breadth, from the river Oxus to the Persian Gulph, about 1080. It is bounded on the north by mount Caucasus, the Caspian sea, and Kharasm; on the east by Bukaria and the northern provinces of India; on the south by the Indian sea and Persian gulph. The provinces into which it is divided are Georgia, Shirvan, Armenia, Aderbigian, the antient Media, Ghilan, Mazanderan, Daghestan, all of them bordering on the Caspian. Khorasan, the native country of the celebrated Nadir Shah, Sigistan, Kandahar, the desert province of Mekran, Kerman, the antient Carmania, Laristan, Farsistan or Fars, whence the name of Persia is derived, Khusistan, where stood the antient Susa, and lastly Irakajami, so called to distinguish it from another Irak, which is in the possession of the Turks.

As to the air and climate of this country, considering the great extent thereof, it cannot but be very different, according to the situation of its several parts; some being frozen with cold, whilst others are burnt with heat, at the same time of the year. The air, wherever it is cold, is dry; but where it is extremely hot it is sometimes moist. All along the coast of the Persian gulph, from west to east, to the very mouth of the river Indus, the heat, for four months, is so excessive, that even those who are born in the country, unable to bear it, are forced to quit their houses, and retire to their mountains; so that such as travel in these parts, at that season, find none in the villages but wretched poor creatures, left there to watch the effects of the rich, at the expence of their own health. The extreme heat of the air, as it is insupportable, so it makes it prodigiously unwholesome; strangers frequently falling sick there, and seldom escaping. The eastern provinces of Persia, from the river Indus to the borders of Tartary, are subject to great heats, though not quite so unwholesome as on the coasts of the Indian ocean and the Persian gulph; but in the northern provinces, on the coast of the Caspian, the heat is full as great, and though attended with moisture, is unwholesome as on the coast before mentioned. From October to May there is no country in the world more pleasant than this; but the people carry indelible marks of the malign influence of their summers, looking all of them of a faint yellow, and having neither strength nor spirits, though, about the end of April, they abandon their houses, and retire to the mountains, which are 25 or 30 leagues from the sea. But this moistness in the air is only in these parts; the rest of Persia enjoys a dry air, the sky being perfectly serene, and hardly so much as a cloud to be seen fly therein. Though it seldom rains, the heat admits of some mitigation, for in the night, notwithstanding there is not a cloud to be seen, and the sky is so clear that the stars alone afford a light sufficient to travel by, a brisk wind springs up, which lasts until within an hour of the morning, and gives such a coolness to the air that a man can bear a tolerable warm garment. The seasons in general, and particularly in the middle of this

W. M. Craig del. J. Walls sculp.

A PERSIAN LADY receiving a VISITOR.

sharp and rude, attended with frost and snow; which last descends in great flakes on the mountains, but never in the plains. The climate of Shirauz, the capital of Persia Proper, is represented by a traveller, who lately visited it, as one of the most agreeable in the world; the extremes of heat and cold being seldom felt. "During the spring of the year the face of the country appears uncommonly beautiful. The flowers, of which they have a great variety, and of the brighest hues, the fragrant herbs, shrubs, and plants, the rose, the sweet basil, and the myrtle, all here contribute to refresh and perfume the natural mildness of the air. The nightingale of the garden (called by the Persians boolbul kezar dastaan), the goldfinch, and the linnet, by their melodious warblings at this delightful season of the year, serve to add to the satisfaction of the mind, and to inspire it with the most pleasing ideas. The beauties of nature are here depicted in their fullest extent; the natural historian and the botanist would here meet with an ample scope for pursuing their favourite investigations. With such advantages, added to the salubrity of the air, how can it be wondered that the inhabitants of Shirauz should so confidently assert the pre-eminence of their own city to any other in the world?---or that such beauties should fail of calling forth the poetical exertions of a Hafiz, a Sadi, or a Jami? Their mornings and evenings are cool, but the middle of the day is very pleasant. In summer the thermometer seldom rises above 73 in the day time, and at night it generally sinks as low as 62. The autumn is the worst season of the year, that being the time when the rains begin to fall; and during the autumnal months it is considered by the natives as the most unhealthy; colds, fluxes, and fevers being very general. In winter a vast deal of snow falls and very thick, but it is rarely to be found, except on the summits of the mountains, or towards Ispahan and the more northern parts of Persia. One thing, which is most to be esteemed in this country, and renders it preferable to any other part of the world, is their nights, which are always clear and bright; and the dew, that in most places is of so pernicious and dangerous a nature, is not of the least ill consequence here; there is none at all in summer, and in the other seasons it is of such a nature, that if the brightest scymitar should be exposed to it all night, it would not receive the least rust; a circumstance I have myself experienced. This dryness in the air causes their buildings to last a great while, and is undoubtedly one of the principal reasons that the celebrated ruins of Persepolis have endured for so many ages, and, comparatively speaking, in so perfect a state." The great dryness of the air exempts Persia from thunder and earthquakes. In the spring indeed there sometimes falls hail; and as the harvest is then pretty far advanced, it does a great deal of mischief. The rainbow is seldom seen in this country, because there rise not vapours sufficient to form it; but in the night there are seen rays of light shooting through the firmament, and followed, as it were, by a train of smoke. The winds, however brisk, seldom swell into storms or tempests; but, on the other hand, they are sometimes poisonous and infectious on the shore of the gulph, as all travellers agree. M. Tavernier says, that at Gombroon people oftentimes find themselves struck by a south wind, in such a manner that they cry "I burn!" and immediately fall down dead. M. le Brun tells us that he was assured while he was there that the weather was sometimes so excessively sultry as to melt the seals of letters. At this time the people go in their shirts, and are continually sprinkled with cold water; and some even lie several hours naked in the water. Among the inconveniencies consequent from this malign disposition of the air,

one of the most terrible is the engendering in the arms and legs a kind of long, small worms, which cannot be extracted without great danger of breaking them; upon which a mortification ensues.

The soil of Persia is in general stony, sandy, barren, and every where so dry, that, if it be not watered, it produces nothing, not even grass; but where they can turn their water into the plains and valleys it is not unfruitful. There is a great difference in point of fertility in the different provinces of the empire; and those of Media, Iberia, Hyrcania, and Bactria, are now in a great measure what they were formerly, and surpass most of the others in their productions. All along the Persian gulph the soil is still more barren, cattle less plentiful, and every thing in a worse condition than any where else.

Though there is scarcely a province in Persia which does not produce wine, yet the wine of some provinces is much more esteemed than in others: but Schiras wine is universally allowed to be the best in Persia: insomuch that it is a common proverb there, That to live happily we must eat the bread of Yezd and drink the wine of Schiras.

The grain most common in Persia is wheat; which is wonderfully fair and clean. As for barley, rice, and millet, they only make bread of them in some places, as in Courdestan, when their wheat-bread is exhausted before the return of harvest. They do not cultivate in this country either oats or rye; except where the Armenians are settled, who make great use of the latter in Lent. Rice is the universal aliment of all sorts of people in Persia; for this reason they are extremely careful in its cultivation; for after they have sown it, in the same manner as other grain, they, in three months time, transplant it, root by root, into fields, which are well watered, otherwise it would never attain that perfection in which we find it there; since it is softer, sooner boiled, and more delicious than the same grain in any other part of the world. Perhaps its taste is, in some measure, heightened, by a practice they make use of to give it a glossy whiteness; viz. by cleansing it, after it is out of the husks, with a mixture of flour and salt. Corn ripens exceedingly in this country; so that, in some parts, they have a three-fold crop in the year. The Persian bread is generally very thin, white, and good; and commonly cheap enough.

Metals of all sorts have been found in Persia. Since the reign of Shah Abbas the Great, iron, copper, and lead, have been very common; but there are no gold or silver mines at present; though, as Persia is a very mountainous country, such might very probably be found if pains were taken to search them out. There are silver mines in Kerman and Mazanderan, and one not far from Spauhawn; but they cannot be worked for want of wood. Minerals also are found in Persia in abundance; especially sulphur, saltpetre, salt, and alum. Nothing is more common in this country than to meet with plains, sometimes 10 leagues in length, covered entirely with salt, and others with sulphur and alum. In some places salt is dug out of mines, and even used in building houses. Marble, free-stone, and slate are found in great plenty about Hammadan. The marble is of four colours; viz. white, black, red and black, and white and black. Persia yields two sorts of Petroleum or napthe; namely black and white. In the neighbourhood of Tauris they find azure; but it is not so good as that brought from Tartary. Among the most valuable productions of Persia are the precious stones called turquoises, of which there are several rocks or mines.

The horses of Persia are the most beautiful of the East, though they are not so much

esteemed as those of Arabia; so great, however, is the demand for them, that the finest ones will fetch from 90*l.* to 450*l.* sterling. They are higher than the English saddle horses; straight before, with a small head, legs wonderfully slender, and finely proportioned; they are mighty gentle, good travellers, very light and sprightly, and do good service till they are 18 or 20 years old. The great numbers of them sold into Turkey and the Indies, though none can be carried out of the kingdom without special licence from the king, is what makes them so dear. Next to horses we may reckon mules, which are much esteemed here, and are very fine; and next to these we may justly place asses, of which they have in this country two sorts; the first, bred in Persia, heavy and doltish, as asses in other countries are; the other, originally of an Arabian breed, the most docile and useful creature of its kind in the world. They are used wholly for the saddle; being remarkable for their easy manner of going, and are very sure-footed, carrying their heads lofty, and moving gracefully. Some of them are valued at 20*l.* sterling. The mules here are also very fine; they pace well, never fall, and are seldom tired. The highest price of a mule is about 45*l.* sterling. Camels are also numerous in Persia, and very serviceable; they call them kechty-krouch-konion, i. e. 'the ships of the land;' because the inland trade is carried on by them, as the foreign is by ships. Of these camels there are two sorts, the northern and southern; the latter, which is much the smaller but swifter, will carry a load of about 700 weight, and trot as fast as a horse can gallop; the other will travel with a load of 1200 or 1300 weight: both are profitable to their masters, as costing little or nothing to keep. They travel without halter or reins; grazing on the road from time to time, notwithstanding their load. They are managed entirely by the voice; those who direct them making use of a kind of song, and the camel moving brisker or at its ordinary pace, as the rider keeps a quicker or slower time. The camels shed their hair so clean in the spring that they look like scalded swine, but then they are pitched over, to keep the flies from stinging them. The camels' hair is the most profitable fleece of all the tame beasts; fine stuffs are made of it; and in Europe hats with the mixture of a little beaver.

As beef is little eaten in Persia, their oxen are generally employed in ploughing and other sorts of labour. Hogs are no where bred in Persia, if we except a province or two on the borders of the Caspian sea. Sheep and deer are very common throughout all Persia.

Of wild beasts the number is not great in that country, because there are few forests; but where there are any, as in Hyrcania, now called Tabristan, abundance of lions, bears, tygers, leopards, porcupines, wild boars, and wolves are to be found; but the last are not so numerous as any of the other species.

There are but few insects in this country; which may be ascribed to the dryness of the climate. In some provinces, however, there is an infinite number of locusts or grasshoppers, which fly about in such clouds as to darken the air. In certain parts of the Persian dominions they have large, black scorpions, so venomous that such as are stung by them die in a few hours. In others they have lizards, frightfully ugly, which are an ell long, and as thick as a large toad, their skins being as hard and as tough as that of the sea-dog; they are said to attack and kill men sometimes, but that may be doubted. The southern provinces are infested with gnats, some with long legs, like those we call

midges; and some white, and as small as fleas, which make no buzzing, but sting suddenly, and so smartly that the sting is like the prick of a needle. Among the reptiles is a long square worm, called by the inhabitants hazar-pey, i. e. 'thousand feet,' because its whole body is covered with feet; it runs prodigiously fast, and its bite is dangerous, even mortal, if it gets into the ear.

There are in Persia all the several sorts of fowls which we have in Europe, but not in such great plenty; excepting, however, wild and tame pigeons, of which vast numbers are kept all over the kingdom, chiefly on account of their dung, which is the best manure for melons. It is a great diversion among the lower sort of people in town and country to catch pigeons, though it be forbidden; for this purpose they have pigeons so taught, that, flying in one flock, they surround such wild ones as they find in the field and bring them back with them to their masters. The partridges of this country are the largest and finest in the world, being generally of the size of our fowls. Geese, ducks, cranes, herons, and many other sorts of water-fowl are common here; as are likewise nightingales, which are heard all the year, but chiefly in the spring; martlets, which learn whatever words are taught them; and a bird called noura, which chatters incessantly, and repeats whatever it hears. Of birds of a large size the most remarkable is the pelican, by the Persians called taeb, i. e. 'water carrier;' and also misc, i. e. 'sheep;' because it is as large as one of those animals. There are in Persia various birds of prey. Some of their falcons are the largest and finest in the world: the people take great pains to teach them to fly at game; the Persian lords being great lovers of falconry, and the king having generally 800 of this sort of birds, each of which has a person to attend it.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world, which, generally speaking, is more mountainous than Persia; but many of the mountains yield neither springs nor metals, and but few of them are shaded with trees. It is true some of the chief of them are situated on the frontiers, and serve as a kind of natural ramparts or bulwarks to this vast empire. Among the latter are the mountains of Caucasus, Ararat, sometimes called the mountains of Daghestan, which fill all the place between the Euxine and Caspian seas; those called Taurus, and the several branches thereof, run through Persia, from Natolia to India, and fill all the middle of the country.

As to rivers, except the Araxes, which rises in the mountains of Armenia, and falls into the Kur or Cyrus, before it reaches the Caspian sea, there is not one navigable stream in this country. The Oxus divides Persia on the north-east from Usbeck Tartary. The Indus also may now be reckoned among the rivers of Persia, as the provinces lying to the west of that river are now in possession of that crown; this river is said to run a course of more than 1000 miles, and overflows all the low grounds in April, May, and June.

Ispahan, or, as the Persians pronounce it, Spauhawn, the capital of Persia, is situated in the province of Irac, Agemi, or Persia Proper, upon the ruins, as is supposed, of the antient Hecatompylos, or, as others think, of the Aspa of Ptolemy. Most of the eastern astronomers and geographers place it in north latitude 32° 25′; east longitude 86° 40′. It stands in a very extensive plain, surrounded by mountains; and has eight districts belonging to it, that contain about 400 towns and villages. The fertility of the soil, the mildness of the season, and the fine temperature of the air, all conspire to render Ispahan one of the most charming and delightful cities in the world. It is unanimously agreed that the

present city is of no great antiquity; and the two parts into which it is divided preserve the name of two contiguous towns, from the junction of which it was formed. The inhabitants of these, notwithstanding their neighbourhood, bear an inveterate antipathy to each other; which they discover on all public occasions. Spauhawn owes the glory it now possesses to the great Shah Abas; who, after the conquest of the kingdoms of Lar and Ormus, charmed with the situation of this place, made it the capital of the empire, between the years 1620 and 1628. The mountains with which this city is surrounded defend it alike from the sultry heats of summer and the piercing winds of the winter season; and the plain on which it stands is watered by several rivers, which contribute alike to its ornament and use. Of these rivers, the Zenderoud, after being joined by the Mahmood, passes by Spauhawn; where it has three fine bridges over it, and is as broad as the Seine at Paris. The waters of these united streams are sweet, pleasant, and wholesome, almost beyond comparison; as indeed are all the springs found in the gardens belonging to the houses of Spauhawn. The extent of Spauhawn is very great; not less, perhaps, than 20 miles within the walls, which are of earth, poorly built, and so covered with houses and shaded with gardens that, in many places, it is difficult to discover them. The Persians are wont to say Spauhawn is half the world. Sir John Chardin says that though some reckoned 11,000,000 inhabitants in it, he did not himself look upon it as more populous than London. At a distance the city is not easily distinguished; for many of the streets being adorned with plaintains, and every house having its garden, the whole looks like a wood. The streets in general are neither broad nor convenient; there being three great evils which attend them. The first is that being built on common sewers, these are frequently broke up, which is very dangerous considering that most people are on horseback; the second is that there are many wells or pits in them, which are not less dangerous; the third arises from the people's emptying all their ordure from the tops of their houses; this last, indeed, is in some measure qualified by the dryness of the air, and by its being quickly removed by the peasants, who carry it away to dung their grounds. Some reckon eight and others ten gates, besides posterns, but all agree that there is no difficulty of entering at any hour of the day or night. The three principal suburbs annexed to it are Abbas-abad, built by Shah Abas, and belonging to the people of Tauris; Julfa, inhabited by a colony of Armenians, called by some New Julfa, to distinguish it from the antient city of that name, situated in Armenia, upon the Araxes, whence the original inhabitants of New Julfa were brought; and Ghebr-Abad, or, as the Arabs pronounce it, Kebr-Abad, the street of the magians, occupied entirely by the professors of magism, or the religion of the antient Persians. The river Zenderond separates the city of Ispahan and Abas-Abad from Julfa and Ghebr-Abad. This city has suffered greatly since the commencement of the dreadful rebellion in 1721; the whole kingdom, from that period till a few years ago, having been almost a continued scene of blood, ravages, and confusion. A celebrated modern traveller, who was on the spot, tells us that the inhabitants of Julfa, not many years before the above revolution happened, amounted to 30,000 souls; had 13 churches, and above 100 priests; and paid the Persian court 200 tanans yearly for the free exercise of their religion; that some of the streets were broad and handsome, and planted with trees, with canals and fountains in the middle; others narrow, crooked, and arched a-top; others again, though extremely narrow, as well turning and winding many ways, were of an

incredible length, and resembled so many labyrinths; that at a small distance from the town there were public walks, adorned with plane-trees on either hand, and ways paved with stones, fountains, and cisterns; and there were above 100 caravansaries for the use of merchants and travellers, many of which were built by the kings and prime nobility of Persia: that, as little rain fell there, the streets were frequently full of dust, which rendered the city disagreeable during a considerable part of the summer; that the citizens, however, to make this inconvenience more tolerable, used to water them when the weather was warmer than usual: that there was a castle in the eastern part of the town, which the citizens looked upon as impregnable, in which the public money and most of the military stores were said to be kept: that, notwithstanding the baths and caravansaries were almost innumerable, there was not one public hospital: that most of the public buildings were rather neat than magnificent, though the great meydan or market-place, the royal palace (which is three quarters of a league in circumference), and the alley denominated Toher-bag, adjoining to it, made a very grand appearance: that the former contained the royal mosque, the building denominated kayserich, where all sorts of foreign commodities were exposed to sale, and the mint, where the current money of the kingdom was coined; that, besides the native Persians, there were then in Ispahan above 10,000 Indians, all supported by trade; 20,000 Georgians, Circassians, and Tartars of Daghestan or Lesgees, with a considerable number of English, Dutch, Portuguese, and a few French; that the Capuchins, discalceated or bare-footed Carmelites, Jesuits, Dominicans, and Austin friars had likewise their convents here, though they were unable to make any converts; and there were above 100 mosques and public colleges. But since the fatal period above-mentioned, the suburb of Julfa was almost abandoned by the Armenians. The government of Ispahan, 23 leagues long and as many broad, comprehending several districts, most of them formerly well peopled, appeared many years ago little better than a desert; most of the inhabitants of that fertile and delightful tract being fled and dispersed. Multitudes of them had taken a precarious refuge in the mountains of Loristan, lying between Ispahan and Suster, whose lands were left untilled, and their houses mouldered into ruins. In short, all the distresses of an unsuccessful war or the invasion of a barbarous enemy could not have plunged the people of Ispahan into greater miseries.

CHAPTER III.

Uzbeck Tartary.

UZBECK TARTARY is a general appellation conferred on those countries which are situated on the north of Persia, India, and Tibet, on the Eastern shore of the Caspian, to the south of Siberia, and on the west of the Chinese empire. This region is inhabited by various tribes, but principally by the Sarts, Turkomans, and Uzbeck Tartars. With regard to the first of these we are told that they are the antient inhabitants of the country, or those who were settled there before the Uzbecks became masters of it; and that they support themselves, like the Turkomans, by their cattle and husbandry. The Turkmans or Turkomans came originally from Turkestan, or the parts of Tartary to the north of Kharazm and Great Bukaria, towards the 11th century. They divided into two parties; one of which went round the north side of the Caspian sea, and settled in the western parts of the Greater Armenia, from thence called Turkomania, or the country of the Turkomans. The second party turned south, and rested upon the banks of the river Amu, and the shores of the Caspian sea, where they still possess a great many towns and villages in the countries of Kharazm and Astarabad.

The name of Uzbecks, which the ruling tribe of the Tartars of Kharazm and Great Bukaria bear at present, is derived from one of their khans. The Usbecks of Kharazm are divided into several hords, and live, for the most part, by rapine; resembling, in all respects, those of Great Bukaria, excepting that they are much more rude and uncivilized. Like the Turkomans they dwell in winter in the towns and villages, which are towards the middle of Kharazm; and in summer the greater part of them encamp in the neighbourhood of the Amu, or in other places where they can meet with pasture for their cattle, always watching for some convenient opportunity to rob and to plunder. They never cease making incursions upon the adjacent territories of Persia or Great Bukaria, and are to be restrained by no treaties or engagements whatsoever. Although they have fixed habitations, yet, in travelling from one place to another, they carry with them all their effects of value, conformable to the way of living in use among their ancestors, before they had settled dwellings.

These Tartars, it is said, never ride without their bows, arrows, and swords, although it be in hawking or taking any other diversion. They have no arts or sciences among them, neither do they till or sow. They are great devourers of flesh, which they cut in small pieces, and eat greedily by handfuls, especially horse flesh.

Their chief drink is sour mare's milk, like that in use with the Nogays. They eat their victuals upon the ground, sitting with their legs double under them, which is their posture also when they pray.

All these tribes have abundance of camels, horses, and sheep, both wild and tame. Their sheep are extraordinary large, with great tails, weighing 60 or 80 pounds. There are many wild horses in the country, which the Tartars frequently kill with their hawks. These birds are taught to seize upon the head or neck of the beast, which, being tired

with toiling to get rid of their cruel enemy, the hunter, who follows his game, comes up and kills him. Some travellers tell us that the inhabitants of this country have not the use of gold, silver, or any other coin, but barter their cattle for necessaries. Others tell us they have money, particularly a piece of silver, called tanga, the value near the fourth part of a crown. It is round, and has on one side the name of the country, and on the other that of the khan, with the year of the hegira. There are also, it is said, small pieces of copper, of different sizes, which answer to our pence, half-pence, and farthings.

The most important of these countries are Kharazm and the two Bukarias. Kharazm consists principally of sandy plains, but is possessed of some good pasture. The fertile spots are chiefly to be met with on the banks of the three rivers Amu, Khesil, and Sir, and of the lake Aral. Here are produced vines, very excellent melons and other fruits, which are much esteemed throughout Asia.

Great Bukaria is an exceeding rich and fertile country, the mountains abound with the richest mines, the valleys are of an astonishing fertility in all sorts of fruit and pulse; the fields are covered with grass the height of a man; the rivers abound with excellent fish, and wood, which is scarce over all Grand Tartary, is here in great plenty. But all these benefits are of but little use to the Tartar inhabitants, who are naturally so lazy that they will rather go rob and kill their neighbours than apply themselves to the benefits which nature so liberally affords them.

The city of Samarcand in Great Bukaria is built with stone, and carries on a considerable trade in fruit. It is situated in the midst of a pleasant spot, which is called by the Asiatics the paradise of Sogd.

Little Bukaria is so called, though larger than the other, because of its inferiority in the number and beauty of its cities, and the fertility of its soil. It is, however, tolerably populous and fertile, but the great elevation of its land, joined to the height of the mountains, which bound it in several parts, particularly towards the south, renders it much colder than from its situation might naturally be expected. It is very rich in mines of gold and silver; but the inhabitants reap little benefit by them, because neither the Eluths nor Kalmucs, who are masters of the country, nor the Bukhars care to work in them. Nevertheless they gather abundance of gold from the beds of the torrents formed by the melting of the snow in the spring; and from hence comes all that gold dust which the Bukhars carry into India, China, and Siberia. Much musk is likewise found in this country; and all sorts of precious stones, even diamonds; but the inhabitants have not the art of either cutting or polishing them.

The inhabitants of both Great and Little Bukaria are generally those people called Bukhars. They are commonly sun-burnt and black haired; although some of them are very fair, handsome and well made. They do not want politeness, and are addicted to commerce; which they carry on with China, the Indies, Persia, and Russia; but those who deal with them will be sure of being over-reached if they do not take great care. The habits of the men differ very little from those of the Tartars. Their girdles are like those of the Poles. The garments of the women differ in nothing from those of the men, and are commonly quilted with cotton. They wear bobs in their ears 12 inches long, part and twist their hair in tresses, which they lengthen with black riblands, embroidered with gold or silver, and with great tassels of silk and silver, which hang down to their

heels; three other tufts, of a smaller size, cover their breasts. Both sexes carry about with them prayers, written by their priests, which they keep in a small leathern purse by way of relics. The girls and some of the women tinge their nails red with the juice of an herb called kena: they dry and pulverize it, then, mixing it with powder-alum, expose it in the air for 24 hours before they use it, and the colour lasts a long time. Both sexes wear close breeches and boots of Russia leather, very light, and without heels or leather soles, putting on galloches or high-headed slippers, like the Turks, when they go abroad. They wear also the same sort of bonnet and covering for the head; only the women set off theirs with trinkets, small pieces of money, and China pearls. Wives are distinguished from maids by a long piece of linen, worn under their bonnets, which, folding round the neck, they tie in a knot behind, so that one end of it hangs down to the waist.

The Bukhar houses are of stone, and pretty good, but their moveables consist mostly of some China trunks, plated with iron. Upon these, in the day-time, they spread the quilts they made use of at night, and cover them with a cotton carpet of various colours. They have likewise a curtain, sprigged with flowers and various figures; also a sort of bedstead, half a yard high and four yards long, which is hidden in the day time with a carpet. They are very neat about their victuals, which is dressed in the master's chamber by his slaves, whom the Bukhars either take or buy from the Russians, Kalmucs, or other neighbours. For this purpose there are in the chamber, according to the largeness of the family, several iron pots, set in a kind of range near a chimney. Some have little ovens, made, like the rest of the walls, with a stiff clay or bricks. Their utensils consist of some plates and porringers, made of cague or of china, and some copper vessels. A piece of coloured calico serves them instead of a table cloth and napkins. They use neither chairs nor tables, knives nor forks; but sit cross-legged on the ground; and the meat being served up they pull it to pieces with their fingers. Their spoons resemble our wooden ladles. Their usual food is minced meats, of which they make pies, of the form of a half-moon: these serve for provisions when the Bukhars go long journeys, especially in winter. They carry them in a bag, having first exposed them to the frost; and when boiled in water they make very good broth. Tea is their common drink, of which they have a black sort, prepared with milk salt, and butter, eating bread with it when they have any.

CHAPTER IV.

ARABIA.

ARABIA is a great peninsula, bounded toward the north and north-west by Turkey; on the east by the Persian gulf, which separates it from Persia; south by the Indian ocean; and west by the Red sea, separating it from Egypt and Nubia.

The first division of the peninsula of Arabia was into *Arabah* and *Kedem*, as we learn from scripture; the first of which implies the west and the other the east, denoting the situation of the two countries. Ptolemy was the first who divided the peninsula we speak of into three parts, *Arabia Petræa*, *Arabia Deserta*, and *Arabia Felix*; which division has generally prevailed since his time.

Arabia Petræa on the east is bounded by Syria and Arabia Deserta; on the west by Egypt, or rather the isthmus of Suez, which separates Asia from Africa, and the Heroopolitan gulf or western arm of the Red sea; on the north by Palestine, the lake Asphaltites, and Cœlosyria; and on the south by Arabia Felix. The tract does not admit of much cultivation; the greatest part being covered with dry sands or rising into rocks, interspersed here and there with some fruitful spots. Its metropolis was Petra, which, by the Syrians, was styled Rakam, and in scripture Joktheel. Several other cities of Arabia Petræa are mentioned by Ptolemy; but, as it is improbable such a barren country should abound with large cities, we must look upon them as inconsiderable places.

Arabia Deserta is bounded on the north by the Euphrates, which separated it from Mesopotamia; on the west by Syria, Judea, and Arabia Petræa; on the east by a ridge of mountains, which separated it from Babylonia and Chaldea; on the south by Arabia Felix, from which it is likewise separated by several ridges of hills. By far the greatest part of this kingdom as well as the former is a lonesome desert, diversified only with plains covered with sand, or mountains consisting of naked rocks and precipices; nor are they ever, unless sometimes at the exquinoxes, refreshed with rain. The few vegetables which they produce are stinted by a perpetual drought, and the nourishment afforded them by the nocturnal dews is greatly impaired by the heat of the sun in the day-time. Throughout the deserts are found huge mountains of sand, formed by the violence of the winds, that continually blow over them in the day-time, though they cease in the night. Wells and fountains are, for the most part, exceedingly rare; however, notwithstanding the sterility of these countries, the vast plains of sands, just now mentioned, are interspersed with fruitful spots, which appear here and there like so many islands in the midst of the ocean. These being rendered extremely delightful by their verdure, and the more so by the neighbourhood of those frightful deserts, the Arabs encamped upon them, and having consumed every thing they found upon one, removed to another, as is the custom of their descendants the Bedoweens at this day.

Arabia Felix is bounded on the north by the two kingdoms just described; on the south by the Red sea, together with the Arabian and Persian gulfs. In Strabo's time it was divided into five provinces by the oriental historians, called Yaman, Hejaz, Tehama, Najd,

and Yamama. In this district stood several towns, particularly Nysa, famous for being the birth place of Bacchus; and Musa or Muza, a celebrated emporium or harbour, where the Arabian merchants resorted with their frankincense, spices, and perfumes. These were situated in the province of Yaman. In that of Hejas stood the still more famous cities of Mecca and Medina; also Thaisa or Taisa Gjudda or Jodda, Yanbo or Al Yanbo, and Madian, the Modiana of Ptolemy, and the Midian or Madian of scripture.

The manners of the Arabs are so much affected by their religion, that we cannot, with propriety, give any account of them till we notice the false prophet Mahomet.

CHAPTER V.

Historical view of Persia, India, Kharasm, and Arabia.

IT is universally admitted that the countries of which we have now to treat have been inhabited by civilized people during a long succession of ages; but the only authentic information we have obtained concerning their most early history is communicated by those sacred oracles which we denominate the bible. According to that antient and invaluable record, the garden of Eden, the original dwelling place of mankind, was situated near the conflux of the Tygris and Euphrates. When our first parents were expelled from that happy seat, they, no doubt, settled on the first fertile spot at which they arrived; nor is there the slightest reason to suppose that their posterity diffused themselves much more widely than their increasing numbers rendered necessary. It is therefore probable that some parts of that country which we now call Persia, and which the Asiatics denominate Iran, were colonized within a few centuries of the creation; while the greater part of the world remained an uncultivated desert. Wherever the antedeluvians settled they carried the arts and sciences much more nearly to perfection than has been generally supposed, since we are assured by scripture that they were acquainted with the use of metals, the structure both of houses and tents, and with the powers of music; and there is good reason to believe that astronomical observations, alphabetical writing, and the formation of laws for the government of society are all of them of a date anterior to the deluge. As Noah was 600 years old when that event took place, and had been for 120 years warned by the Almighty of the approaching calamity, he and his three sons must, no doubt, have carefully treasured up in their minds all the most valuable information which was possessed by their neighbours; and as they, of course, laboured to instruct their posterity, such of these, as were the least dispersed from each other, would, of course, partake the most largely in these benefits. This hypothesis, which, we hope, is perfectly consistent with scripture, general history, and the nature of things, appears to us to account satisfactorily for that very early civilization which is apparent in Persia, and still more strongly in India.

It is controverted among the learned whether the name of Ararat, the place on which the ark rested, designates a particular mountain in the land of Armenia, or that long ridge which traverses a large portion of Asia, and extends from the Mediterranean to the Caspian, and from the Caspian to Tibet, is sometimes denominated the Taurus and sometimes the Indian Caucasus. Whichever of these opinions be just, the early inhabitants of these countries may be easily traced back to their progenitors, the grand children and great grand children of Noah. India is styled in the Sanscrit Cusha-Dweep, and Ramah, the son of Cush, is frequently mentioned in the mythological fables of the Hindoos. Arabia was originally peopled by the children of Joktan; Bukaria by the Tartars, called by the Asiatics Yajuj and Majuj, or the descendants of Gog and Magog; Madai is considered as the father of Media; and Elam as the founder of the first Persian empire.

The oldest race of Persian monarchs we know, from scripture, to have been exceedingly formidable, as Chedor Laomer, king of Elam, is recorded in Genesis to have been followed in the field by several tributary princes, and to have extended his conquests to the banks of the Jordan. They are supposed by the late sir William Jones to have been called the Mahabedian dynasty, and to have practised the pure and patriarchal worship of the creator.

As far as can be concluded from the uncertain testimony of Grecian and oriental history, Asia was, during these remote ages, convulsed by several important military expeditions. The Bacchus of the Greeks, the Osiris of the Egyptians, is said to have traversed Persia, and resided three years in India, in the threefold capacity of a warrior, a legislator, and a civilizer of mankind. Hercules, whether by that name we are to understand an individual or a nation, made these regions also the scene of his marvellous exploits, digging through mountains and diverting rivers from their beds. Semiramis, the great queen of the Assyrians, is described as invading India with an innumerable host, but being warmly received by Staurobates, was obliged to repass the Indus in discomfiture and disgrace. Sesostris, the great king of Egypt, extended his victorious sway over most of those nations to which this chapter relates; while Ogus-khan, the monarch of the Kharasmian Tartars, returned to his native mountains laden with the richest spoils of Persia and Hindostan.

The feudal mode of government, which was diffused over Europe by the northern invaders, appears to have prevailed in India from the highest antiquity. That rich and fertile country is divided by mountains and rivers into a number of inferior districts, most of which were governed by rajahs, who were absolute sovereigns in their own dominions, while they acknowledged a chief, who was called Balharra, as their chief commander in war and their chief magistrate in peace. There were three of these great rajahs in India; one of whom resided in the neighbourhood of the Indus, another on the Ganges, and another in the Deccan. The sovereign of the Ganges was paramount of the whole, and in order to maintain his authority over his extensive dominions, celebrated a feast at certain regular intervals, where all the rajahs of Hindostan were under the necessity of attending, and not only to assist by their counsel, but to perform the necessary menial offices, even to the duties of the scullery. Whoever were absent incurred the forfeiture of their dignities and of their lives.

After the Mahabedian dynasty had continued for several centuries, it gave place to the Pishdadian, which was founded by Cayumers. Feredun, the sixth prince of this family, was incited by some discontented rajahs to invade Hindostan, and was so far successful in that enterprize as to oblige the Hindoos to pay an annual tribute. This monarch is said to have had three sons, among whom, from a determination formed in an advanced period of life, to devote the remainder of it to studious retirement, he divided his vast empire. The name of the first was Salm, probably the Shalmanasser of scripture, to whom he allotted Syria; that of the second Tur, Kharazm and Bukaria, from him called Turan; and that of the youngest Irage, who received the largest and most beautiful portion, including Khorasan and other provinces in the heart of the empire, thenceforth denominated after himself Iran. This division of the Persian empire was soon productive of the greatest calamities. Afrasiab or Phraortes, a descendant of Tur, invaded Iran, and

having slain its monarch, Nudar, with his own hand, became completely master of Persia, and soon after extended his dominion over India itself. After, however, the space of 12 years, he was expelled, by the vigorous exertions of Zalzer, governor of the province of Sigistan.

After two weak reigns Caicobad introduced a third dynasty of Persian kings, which was denominated the Caianian. In his reign Rostam, the son of Zalzer, gained many victories over the Turanians, and was made for his services governor of Zablestan. The successor of Caicobad was Cai-Caus, who was taken prisoner by the Turanians, but liberated by the valour of Rostan. That great general is also said to have conquered Egypt, Arabia, Syria, and Asia Minor. The next king was Cai-khosru, the great Cyrus of the Greeks, who enlarged the Persian empire to its utmost limits. Cai-khosru, says sir William Jones, whom the Persians consider as a demi-god, on ascending the throne determined to revenge the death of his father, and to deliver his kingdom from the tyranny of Afrasiab. He therefore assembled all his forces, and gave battle to the usurper, who, on the other side, was supported by the kings of Khatai and India; but the valour of Cyrus and of his general Rostam prevailed against the united power of so many sovereigns, and Afrasiab lost his life on the mountains of Media. This war is celebrated in a noble poem by the illustrious Ferdusi, who may well be called the Homer of Persia. The successor of Cyrus was, according to the Greeks, Cambyses, a frantic and bloody tyrant; but according to the Persians, Lohorasp, a wise and respectable prince, who gained great victories by the arms of his generals. He reduced Babylon, conquered Egypt, and at length, growing weary of the cares of government, resigned his sceptre to his son Gushtap, the Darius Hystaspes of the Greeks, and to have lived many years in retirement among the Magi. He was afterwards murdered by the Turanians, in one of their invasions of Persia. Gushtap was a valiant and successful prince: he took, after a long siege, Babylon, which had renounced his authority; invaded India and Turan; but he is more celebrated as the friend of Zerdusht or Zoroaster, the great Persian reformer, than for any other part of his conduct, civil or military. Of the disciples of Zerdusht, who yet remain at Bombay, Surat, and other parts of India, whither they fled when their country was conquered, we have the following account in Heron's elegant translation of Niebuhr's travels.

"The Persees (says he) make common contributions for the aid of their poor, and suffer none of their number to ask alms from people of a different religion. They are equally ready to employ their money and credit to screen a brother of their fraternity of their abuses of justice. When a Persee behaves ill he is expelled from their communion. They apply to trade and exercise all sorts of professions."

"The Persees have as little knowledge of circumcision as the Hindoos. Among them a man marries only one wife, nor ever takes a second, unless when the first happens to be barren. They give their children in marriage at six years of age, but the young couple continue to live separate, in the houses of their parents, till they attain the age of puberty. Their dress is the same as that of the Hindoos, except that they wear under each ear a tuft of hair, like the modern Persians. They are much addicted to astrology, although very little skilled in astronomy."

"They retain the singular custom of exposing their dead to be eaten by birds of prey.

instead of interring or burning them. I saw (continues our author), on a hill at Bombay, a round tower, covered with planks of wood, on which the Persees lay out their dead bodies. When the flesh is devoured they remove the bones into two chambers at the bottom of the tower."

"The Persees, followers of the religion of Zerdust or Zoroaster, adore one God only, eternal and almighty. They pay, however, a certain worship to the sun, the moon, the stars, and to fire, as visible images of the invisible divinity. Their veneration for the element of fire induces them to keep a sacred fire constantly burning, which they feed with odoriferous wood, both in the temples and in the houses of private persons who are in easy circumstances. In one of their temples at Bombay I saw a fire, which had burnt unextinguished for two centuries. They never blow out a light, lest their breath should soil the purity of the fire."

The religion of the Persees enjoins purifications as strictly as that of the Hindoos. The disciples of Zerdust are not, however, obliged to abstain from animal food. They have accustomed themselves to refrain from the flesh of the ox, because their ancestors promised the Indian prince, who received them into his dominions, never to kill horned cattle. This promise they continue to observe under the dominions of Christians and Mahometans. The horse is considered by them as the most impure of all animals, and regarded with extreme aversion."

"Their festivals, denominated Ghumbars, which return frequently, and last upon each occasion five days, are all commemorations of some part of the work of creation. They celebrate them, not with splendor or with any particular ceremonies, but only dress better these five days, perform some acts of devotion in their houses, and visit their friends."

The affairs of the Persian empire from this time till its dissolution are closely interwoven with those of Greece. The noble resistance which was made at Marathon, at Thermopilæ, at Salamis, at Platea, and at Mycale, to the forces of Darius and his successor Xerxes will be hereafter more distinctly noticed. Artaxerxes Longimanus, who is by some supposed to be the Ahasuerus of scripture, is distinguished by little but the quelling a domestic insurrection, excited by his brother Hystaspes. Xerxes II. was murdered, in a state of intoxication, by his brother Sogdianus, who was afterwards cut off by another brother, who obtained the empire under the title of Darius Nothus. Next in the list of Persian kings succeeds Artaxerxes Mnemon, under whom took place the rebellion of Cyrus and the celebrated retreat of the 10,000. His son Ochus is noted only for his tyranny, the treachery of his friendship, and the cruelty of his hatred. He was murdered by an Egyptian slave, who also assassinated his successor Arses, and placed the crown on the head of Darius Codomannus, the unfortunate competitor of Alexander the Great. The rapid conquests of that invincible Macedonian, and the astonishing victories he obtained, must be referred to a succeeding chapter. We shall here briefly notice the tragical death of Darius. Alexander having passed the Caspian straits, received tidings of the seizure of Darius by the traitor Bessus and his comrades, who had bound him in chains, and were hurrying away the royal prisoner, closely confined in a chariot, covered with skins of beasts, to his government of Bactria. On this affecting intelligence Alexander urged on the pursuit, day and night, with such precipitation that many of the men and horses perished through the severity of the fatigue they underwent. As he ap-

proached nearer the ruffians he learned that Bessus affected to wear the imperial purple, and had been hailed the sovereign of Persia by the whole army, except the Greek mercenaries and a few faithful Persian battalions.

The ardour and impatience of Alexander's mind prevented him from sinking under the incessant fatigue he had endured; and at length arriving at a village in which Bessus and his Bactrian adherents had encamped the preceding day; fearful also that their treason might even attempt the life of Darius, he pressed on with redoubled eagerness, being conducted by certain loyal Persian nobles, who detested the perfidy of Bessus, along a private road, till he came within sight of the rebels, who, ignorant of his approach, were leisurely pursuing their march, and in much disorder. Though Alexander had with him but an inconsiderable body of troops, compared with those of the enemy, yet the terror of his name and consciousness of guilt had such an effectual power upon them that they immediately betook themselves to precipitate flight. Bessus and his treacherous accomplice Nabarzanes, who, with Darius, were advanced considerably before the main body of the army, on being informed of their situation, anxiously solicited the royal prisoner to quit the chariot which conveyed him, and continue on horseback his progress into Bactaria; but the indignant monarch refused any longer to be the dupe of their artifices, and declared himself determined rather to confide his life in the hands of a generous enemy than to perfidious friends. On this the enraged parricides pierced him through with darts, and left him covered with wounds. They also killed the driver, and struck their spears into the horses that drew the chariot. Those animals, being in agony, and without a guide, wandered a few furlongs out of the road to a stream of water, to which Polystratus, a Macedonian, wearied and heated in the pursuit, accidentally came to quench his thirst. The groans of a dying man, that seemed to issue from the carriage, awakened his curiosity; and on opening the covering he beheld Darius pierced with darts, and weltering in his blood. The dying prince had sufficient strength left to demand some water, which a Persian captive, who attended the Macedonian, understood, and which was given him by Polystratus in his helmet; the Persian, who at a distance had witnessed the cruel conduct of Bessus, at the same time acquainting him with the rank and tragical catastrophe of the personage whom he thus benevolently relieved. Darius, refreshed, amidst the agonies of death, by the cooling draught, embraced the opportunity which providence seemed to afford him, in having the Persian for his interpreter, to desire that his warmest acknowledgements might, through Polystratus, be tendered to Alexander, for the humane attention which he had shewn to his family; he implored heaven to grant him that success which his valour and generosity so highly merited, and expressed an ardent hope that he would revenge a murdered sovereign on his rebellious subjects. Then grasping the hand of Polystratus with all the strength that yet remained to him, he entreated of him that he would, in the same manner, grasp the hand of Alexander, as the only humble pledge of genuine and grateful affection in his power to bequeath to the Macedonian monarch. Having faintly uttered these affecting words he expired in the arms of Polystratus. A Greek embittered his living, a Greek soothed his dying moments. Alexander, at that instant coming up, on beholding the mangled and breathless body of his rival, could not refrain from bursting into a flood of tears. Penetrated with anguish, anguish not perhaps untinctured with remorse, he tore the royal mantle from his own shoulders and spread it

over the body of Darius. He then gave orders for its being embalmed, and sent it, in a rich coffin, adorned with the most costly robes, and embalmed with the richest aromatics, to the disconsolate Sisigambis, to be interred in the mausoleum of the Persian kings.

The death of Darius did not bring a termination to the labours of Alexander, nor could the conquest of the whole Persian empire satiate his boundless ambition. In the pursuit of Bessus he invaded Turan, and having, with great difficulty, arising from the rugged face of the country, obtained possession of the traitor, delivered him up to the fury of the relations of Darius. After this he attacked the Eastern Scythians, and made them experience the power of his arms. His attention was next turned towards India. Here he met with much more vigorous resistance than he had ever found from the Persians. Porus, the great rajah, whose capital was situated near the Indus, was not conquered without a very hard fought battle, and so far pleased Alexander by his bravery, that, having been prevailed upon to submit, he received again his kingdom, augmented by the addition of several provinces. Having traversed a great part of the Penjab, Alexander crossed the river Hyphasis, with a determination to penetrate to the Ganges, and overturn that Indian empire which had so long subsisted on the borders of that river. His soldiers, however, wearied out by that excessive fatigue which necessarily attends an Indian campaign at the season of the monsoons, refused to accompany him any further, so that, having first gratified his curiosity and ambition, by exploring the Indies till he arrived at the Indian ocean, he returned by the south of Persia, to his court at Babylon. Here he died, either from poison or the excess of drinking, in the 323 year before the Christian era

A young Indian prince, a soldier of fortune in the army of Alexander, was one of those instruments employed by providence to crumble in pieces the mighty Macedonian empire. He was the son of Nanda, the great rajah, who resided on the banks of the Ganges, who possessed Bengal as his more immediate government, but was acknowledged as paramount by most, if not all, the Indian sovereigns. His son assumed the name of Chandragupta, or saved by the moon, from the circumstance of his escaping the massacre by which his brothers were destroyed. By whatever means he ascended the throne of his ancestors he soon became a very powerful monarch, and, with the assistance of 600,000 men, trained in the imitation of Grecian discipline, and supported by a long train of elephants, he appears to have extended his sway over the whole of India, and compelled both the colonies and allies of Alexander to tender him some kind of obedience.

Seleucus Nicator, the most powerful of all the successors of Alexander, once passed the Indus in hopes of accomplishing the subjugation of India. He soon, however, learned that Chandragupta was a very formidable rival, and therefore contented himself with receiving a stipulated supply of elephants, while he confirmed and enlarged the territories of the Indian emperor. Soon after this event, having defeated Antigonus and his son Demetrius, in the fatal battle of Ipsus, Seleucus was enabled to claim Syria and Persia for his share of the empire of his master. These two mighty princes, Seleucus and Chandragupta, continued in amity during the remainder of their lives, encouraged the commercial intercourse of their subjects, and both of them showed themselves patrons of the arts.

A flourishing trade was, about this time, established by the Ptolemies of Egypt, between

their subjects and the natives of Arabia, Persia, and India. The navigation was chiefly conducted by Arabian mariners, who sailed from Berenice, a port on the Red sea, and accomplished their voyage and return by taking the advantage of those periodical winds which we denominate the monsoons. This commerce was carried on in succeeding ages by the Romans.

The empires which were established by Seleucus and Chandragupta did not long retain their magnitude under their successors. A race of Greek princes probably established themselves at Pattala, and Bactria and Parthia became independent kingdoms. The revolt of Bactria took place in the year before Christ 255. Its first king was Theodotus, who had been governor of the province. His son and successor, of the same name, was expelled from the government by Euthydemus of Magnesia. This prince, whatever was his origin, governed his subjects with equal wisdom and justice, happily tempered a necessary rigour with a salutary clemency, still more widely extended the glory of the Bactrian name, and deeper fixed the foundations of her growing empire. The fourth sovereign of Bactria was Menander, who is said to have subdued more nations in India than Alexander himself, and to have extended his dominions on the one hand to Pattala and Zizerus, on the Malabar coast; and quite to Bactria and Drapsa on the other. Plutarch has given us the noblest idea of his character by recording the following fact: viz. that so highly was he revered by his subjects for the love of justice and the moderate use of almost unbounded power, that many cities of his empire contended with violence for the honour of having his body deposited among them, and that no other method could be found of allaying the contentions excited on this account than by burning the body, and distributing among them equal portions of the ashes of the deceased prince. These ashes were deposited in magnificent monuments, erected to his honour in almost every city of the vast empire of Bactriana. At length, in the year before Christ 126, this empire came to its termination, being obliged to yield to the superior force of the Parthians and the Tartars of Turan.

In the year before Christ 250, Arsaces, a prince, according to Strabo, of Scythian origin, of the tribe of Dahæ, and the first monarch of the celebrated dynasty, denominated from him Arsacidæ, aspired to independence in Parthia. Roused to revenge by a grievous insult offered to his family by the base prefect, Agathocles, appointed by Antiochus Theos to govern the provinces beyond the Euphrates, and also additionally encouraged by the similar motives that influenced the insurrection of Theodotus, the debility that pervaded every part of the Syrian empire, this daring chief as rapidly accomplished what he had so boldly planned, and after putting to deserved death the iniquitous governor and his associates in guilt, seized upon that province and Hyrcania, drove out the Macedonians from the whole of that district, and erected at Hecatompylos a standard at which all Asia was shortly after doomed to tremble, and which Rome herself beheld with dismay. The province properly called Parthia is described by sir William Jones to be the same with the Persian Irak of the moderns, and is also called Cuhistan, or the mountainous country, because incircled by mountains, which form its strong barrier on every quarter. It had Media on the west, Hyrcania on the north, on the east Aria, and the desert Carmania on the south. In the early periods of the Persian and even Macedonian empires it was not considered of importance sufficient to be made a province of, but was

included in Hyrcania. Its capital was Hecatompylos, or the city with 100 gates; the name is evidently Greek, but whether the city itself was of Greek fabrication has not been satisfactorily ascertained. The modern city of Ispahan is supposed to have been founded on its ruins. Such were the contracted limits of the first Parthian monarchs, who, notwithstanding temporary impulses and occasional defeats, even of the most serious nature, soon enlarged them rapidly, conquering from their Asiatic rivals Media, Persia, and Babylon, and in the reign of Mithridates, only the fifth in succession, giving supreme law to all the nations inhabiting from the Euphrates to mount Caucasus. The military force of the Parthians consisted chiefly in cavalry, and to the fleetness of their horses, the dexterity of their archers in directing their arrows with equal exactness when advancing or retreating, and the goodness of their armour, they were principally indebted for success. Notwithstanding all the attacks of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, they maintained their empire 475 years, and at length sunk under the power of their own subjects, the Persians.

The restorer of the Persian monarchy was Artaxerxes or Artaxares, who was not only a private person but of spurious birth. However he possessed great abilities, by which means he executed his ambitious projects. He was no sooner seated on the throne than he took the pompous title of king of kings, and formed a design of restoring the empire to its former glory. He therefore gave notice to the Roman governors of the provinces bordering on his dominions, that he had a just right, as the successor of Cyrus, to all the Lesser Asia, which he therefore commanded them immediately to quit, as well as the provinces on the frontiers of the antient Parthian kingdom, which were already his. The consequence of this was a war with Alexander Severus, the Roman emperor. Concerning the event of this war there are very different accounts. It is certain, however, that on account of his exploits against Artaxerxes, Alexander took the titles of Parthicus and Persicus, though it would seem with no great reason, as the Persian monarch lost none of his dominions, and his successors were equally ready with himself to invade the Roman territories.

Artaxerxes dying after a reign of 12 or 15 years, was succeeded by his son Sapor; a prince of great abilities both of body and mind, but fierce, haughty, untractable, and cruel. He was no sooner seated on the throne than he began a new war with the Romans. In the beginning he was unsuccessful, being obliged, by the young emperor Gordian, to withdraw from the Roman dominions, and was even invaded in his turn; but in a short time, Gordian being murdered by Philip, the new emperor made peace with him, upon terms very advantageous to the Persians. He was no sooner gone than Sapor renewed his incursions, and made such alarming progress that the emperor Valerian, at the age of 70, marched against him in person, at the head of a numerous army. An engagement ensued, in which the Romans were defeated, and Valerian taken prisoner. Sapor pursued his advantages with such insolence of cruelty that the people of the provinces took arms, first under Callistus, a Roman general, and then under Odenatus, prince of Palmyrene. Thus they not only protected themselves from the insults of the Persians, but even gained many great victories over them, and drove Sapor with disgrace into his own dominions. In his march he is said to have made use of the bodies of his unfortunate prisoners to fill up the hollow roads, and to facilitate the passage of his carriages over such rivers as

lay in his way. On his return to Persia he was solicited by the kings of the Cadusians, Armenians, Bactrians, and other nations, to set Valerian at liberty, but to no purpose. On the contrary he used him the worse, treated him daily with indignities, set his foot upon his neck when he mounted his horse, and, as is affirmed by some, flayed him alive, after some years confinement; and caused his skin to be tanned, which he kept as a monument of his victory over the Romans. This extreme insolence and cruelty was followed by an uninterrupted course of misfortune. Odenatus defeated him in every engagement, and even seemed ready to overthrow his empire; and after him Aurelian took ample vengeance for the captivity of Valerian. Sapor died in the year of Christ 273, after having reigned 31 years, and was succeeded by his son Hormisdas, and he by Varanes I. Concerning both these princes we know nothing more than that the former reigned a year and ten days, and the latter three years, after which he left the crown to Varanes II. who seems to have been so much awed by the power of the Romans that he durst undertake nothing. The rest of the Persian history to the overthrow of the empire by the Saracens affords nothing but an account of the continued invasions of the Roman empire.

In the sixth century, in the reign of Nushirvan the Just, an extraordinary character appeared, who, by propagating a new religion, established such an authority as enabled his successors to number Persia among the provinces of their empire. It will here be necessary to consider the state of Arabia at the time when this successful imposter Mohamed or Mahomet made his appearance.

The perpetual independence of the Arabs, says the elegant historian Gibbon, indeed has been the theme of praise among strangers and natives. The kingdom of Yemen, it is true, has been successively subdued by the Abyssinians, the Persians, the sultans of Egypt, and the Turks; the holy cities of Mecca and Medina have repeatedly bowed under a Scythian tyrant; and the Roman province of Arabia embraced the peculiar wilderness in which Ismael and his sons must have pitched their tents in the face of their brethren. Yet these exceptions are temporary or local; the body of the nation has escaped the yoke of the most powerful monarchies: the arms of Sesostris and Cyrus, of Pompey and Trajan, could never atchieve the conquest of Arabia; the present sovereign of the Turks may exercise a shadow of jurisdiction, but his pride is reduced to solicit the friendship of a people whom it is dangerous to provoke and fruitless to attack. The obvious causes of their freedom are inscribed on the character and country of the Arabs. Many ages before Mahomet, their intrepid valour had been severely felt by their neighbours in offensive and defensive war. The patient and active virtues of a soldier are insensibly nursed in the habits and discipline of a pastoral life. The care of the sheep and camels is abandoned to the women of the tribe; but the martial youth, under the banner of the emir, is ever on horseback and in the field, to practise the exercise of the bow, the javelin, and scymitar. The long memory of their independence is the firmest pledge of its perpetuity; and succeeding generations are animated to prove their descent, and to maintain their inheritance. Their domestic feuds are suspended on the approach of a common enemy; and in their last hostilities against the Turks, the caravan of Mecca was attacked and pillaged by 80,000 of the confederates. When they advance to battle the hope of victory is in the front, and in the rear the assurance of a retreat. Their horses and camels, which, in

eight or ten days, can perform a march of 4 or 500 miles, disappear before the conqueror; the secret waters of the desert elude his search; and his victorious troops are consumed with thirst, hunger, and fatigue, in the pursuit of an invisible foe, who scorns his efforts, and safely reposes in the heart of the burning solitude. The arms and deserts of the Bedoweens are not only the safeguards of their own freedom but the barriers also of the Happy Arabia, whose inhabitants, remote from war, are enervated by the luxury of the soil and climate. The legions of Augustus melted away in disease and lassitude: and it is only by a naval power that the reduction of Yemen has been successfully attempted. When Mahomet erected his holy standard that kingdom was a province of the Persian empire; yet seven princes of the Homerites still reigned in the mountains, and the vice-gerent of Chosroes was tempted to forget his distant country and his unfortunate master. The historians of the age of Justinian thus represent the state of the independent Arabs, who were divided by interest or affection in the long quarrel of the East: the tribe of Gassan was allowed to encamp on the Syrian territory: the princes of Hira were permitted to form a city about 40 miles to the southward of the ruins of Babylon. Their service in the field was speedy and vigorous; but their friendship was venal, their faith inconstant, their enmity capricious; it was an easier task to excite than to disarm these roving barbarians; and in the familiar intercourse of war they learned to see and to despise the splendid weakness both of Rome and of Persia. From Mecca to the Euphrates the Arabian tribes were confounded by the Greeks and Latins under the general appellation of Saracens; a name which every Christian mouth has been taught to pronounce with terror and abhorrence.

The slaves of domestic tyranny may vainly exult in their national independence; but the Arab is personally free; and he enjoys, in some degree, the benefits of society, without forfeiting the prerogatives of nature. In every tribe superstition, or gratitude, or fortune, has exalted a particular family above the heads of their equals. The dignities of sheich and emir invariably descend in this chosen race; but the order of succession is loose and precarious, and the most worthy or aged of the kinsmen are preferred to the simple though important office of composing disputes by their advice, and guiding valour by their example. The momentary junction of several tribes produces an army; their more lasting union constitutes a nation; and the supreme chief, the emir of emirs, whose banner is displayed at their head, may deserve, in the eyes of strangers, the honours of the kingly name. If the Arabian princes abuse their power they are quickly punished by the desertion of their subjects, who had been accustomed to a mild and parental jurisdiction.

The separation of the Arabs from the rest of mankind has accustomed them to confound the ideas of stranger and enemy; and the poverty of the land has introduced a maxim of jurisprudence, which they believe and practise to the present hour. They pretend that in the division of the earth the rich and fertile climates were assigned to the other branches of the human family; and that the posterity of the outlaw Ismael might recover by fraud or force the portion of inheritance of which he had been unjustly deprived. According to the remark of Pliny, the Arabian tribes are equally addicted to theft and merchandize; the caravans that travel the desert are ransomed or pillaged; and their neighbours, since the remote times of Job and Sesostris, have been the victims of their rapacious spirit.

If a Bedoween discovers from afar a solitary traveller, he rides furiously against him, crying, with a loud voice, "Undress thyself, thy aunt (my wife) is without a garment." A ready submission entitles him to mercy: resistance provokes the aggressor; and his own blood must expiate the blood which he presumes to shed in legitimate defence. A single robber or a few associates are branded with their genuine name; but the exploits of a numerous band assume the character of lawful and honourable war. The temper of a people thus armed against mankind was doubly inflamed by the domestic licence of rapine, murder, and revenge.

But the spirit of rapine and revenge was attempered by the milder influence of trade and literature. The solitary peninsula is encompassed by the most civilized nations of the antient world: the merchant is the friend of mankind; and the annual caravans imported the first seeds of knowledge and politeness into the cities and even the camps of the desert. The arts of grammar, of metre, and of rhetoric were unknown to the free-born eloquence of the Arabians; but their penetration was sharp, their fancy luxuriant, their wit strong and sententious, and their more elaborate compositions were addressed with energy and effect to the minds of their hearers. The genius and merit of a rising poet was celebrated by the applause of his own and the kindred tribes. A solemn banquet was prepared, and a chorus of women, striking their tymbals, and displaying the pomp of their nuptials, sung, in the presence of their sons and husbands, the felicity of their native tribe; that a champion had now appeared to vindicate their rights; that a herald had raised his voice to immortalise their renown. The constant or hostile tribes resorted to an annual fair, which was abolished by the fanaticism of the first moslems, a national assembly that must have contributed to refine and harmonize the barbarians. Thirty days were employed in the exchange not only of corn and wine but of eloquence and poetry. The prize was disputed by the generous emulation of the bards; the victorious performance was deposited in the archives of princes and emirs; and we may read in our own language the seven original poems which were inscribed in letters of gold, and suspended in the temple of Mecca. The Arabian poets were the historians and moralists of the age; and if they sympathized with the prejudices, they inspired and crowned the virtues of their countrymen. The indissoluble union of generosity and valour was the darling theme of their song; and when they pointed their keenest satire against a despicable race, they affirmed, in the bitterness of reproach, that the men knew not how to give, nor the women to deny. The same hospitality which was practised by Abraham and celebrated by Homer is still renewed in the camps of the Arabs. The ferocious Bedoweens, the terror of the desert, embrace, without inquiry or hesitation, the stranger who dares to confide in their honour and to enter their tent. His treatment is kind and respectful: he shares the wealth or the poverty of his host; and after a needful repose he is dismissed on his way with thanks, with blessings, and perhaps with gifts.

The religion of the Arabs, as well as of the Indians, consisted in the worship of the sun, the moon, and the fixed stars; a primitive and spacious mode of superstition. The bright luminaries of the sky display the visible image of a deity; their number and distance convey to a philosophic or even a vulgar eye the idea of boundless space: the character of eternity is marked on these solid globes that seem incapable of corruption or decay; the regularity of their motions may be ascribed to a principle of reason or instinct;

and their real or imaginary influences encourage the vain belief that the earth and its inhabitants are the object of their peculiar care. The science of astronomy was cultivated at Babylon, but the school of the Arabs was a clear firmament and a naked plain. In their nocturnal marches they steered by the guidance of the stars; their names, and order, and daily station were familiar to the curiosity and devotion of the Bedoween; and he was taught by experience to divide in 28 parts the Zodiac of the moon, and to bless the constellations who refreshed with salutary rains the thirst of the desert. The reign of the heavenly orbs could not be extended beyond the visible sphere, and some metaphysical powers were necessary to sustain the transmigration of souls and the resurrection of bodies; a camel was left to perish on the grave, that he might serve his master in another life; and the invocation of departed spirits implies that they were still endowed with consciousness and power. Each tribe, each family, each independent warrior created and changed the rites and the object of his fantastic worship; but the nation in every age has bowed to the religion as well as to the language of Mecca. The genuine antiquity of the Caaba extends beyond the Christian era: in describing the coast of the Red sea, the Greek historian Diodorus has remarked, between the Thamaudites and the Sabæans, a famous temple, whose superior sanctity was revered by all the Arabians. The linen or silken veil, which is annually renewed by the Turkish emperor, was first offered by a pious king of the Mahomerites, who reigned 700 years before the time of Mahomet. A tent or a cavern might suffice for the worship of the savages, but an edifice of stone and clay has been erected in its place; and the art and power of the monarchs of the east have been confined to the simplicity of the original model. A spacious portico incloses the quadrangle of the Caaba; a square chapel, 24 cubits long, 23 broad, and 27 high; a door and a window admit the light; the double roof is supported by three pillars of wood; a spout (now of gold) discharges the rain water; and the well Zenzem is protected by a dome from accidental pollution. The tribe of Koreish, from fraud or force, had acquired the custom of the Caaba; the sacerdotal office devolved through four lineal descents to the grandfather of Mahomet; and the family of the Hashemites, from whence he sprung, was the most respectable and sacred in the eyes of their country. The precincts of Mecca enjoyed the rights of sanctuary; and in the last month of each year the city and the temple were crouded with a long train of pilgrims, who presented their vows and offerings in the house of God. The same rites which are now accomplished by the faithful Mussulman were invented and practised by the superstition of the idolaters. At an awful distance they cast away their garments: seven times with hasty steps they encircled the Caaba, and kissed the black stone; seven times they visited and adored the adjacent mountains; seven times they threw stones into the valley of Mina; and the pilgrimage was atchieved, as at the present hour, by a sacrifice of sheep and camels, and the burial of their hair and nails in the consecrated ground. Each tribe either found or introduced in the Caaba their domestic worship: the temple was adorned or defiled with 360 idols of men, eagles, lions, and antelopes; and most conspicuous was the statue of Hebal, of red agate, holding in his hand seven arrows, without heads or feathers, the instruments or symbols of profane divination. But this statue was a monument of Syrian arts: the devotion of the ruder ages was content with a pillar or a tablet; and the rocks of the desert were hewn into gods or altars, in imitation of the black stone at Mecca, which is

deeply tainted by the reproach of an idolatrous origin. From Japan to Peru the use of sacrifice has universally prevailed; and the votary has expressed his gratitude or fear by destroying or consuming, in honour of the gods, the dearest and most precious of their gifts. The life of a man is the most precious oblation to deprecate a public calamity; the altars of Phœnicia and Egypt, of Rome and Carthage, have been polluted with human gore; the cruel practice was long preserved among the Arabs; in the third century a boy was annually sacrificed by the tribe of the Dumatians; and a royal captive was piously slaughtered by the prince of the Saracens, the ally and soldier of the emperor Justinian. The father of Mahomet himself was devoted by a rash vow, and hardly ransomed for the equivalent of 100 camels. The Arabs, like the Jews and Egyptians, abstained from the taste of swine's flesh, and they circumcised their children at the age of puberty; the same customs, without the censure of the precept of the Koran, have been silently transmitted to their posterity and proselytes; and it has been sagaciously conjectured that the artful legislator indulged the stubborn prejudices of his countrymen.

Arabia was free: from the adjacent kingdoms, which were shaken by the storms of conquest and tyranny, the persecuted sects fled to the happy land, where they might profess what they thought, and practise what they professed; and the religions of the Sabians and Magians, of the Jews and Christians, were disseminated from the Persian gulph to the Red sea. In a remote period of antiquity, Sabianism was diffused over Asia by the science of the Chaldeans and the arms of the Assyrians. From the observations of 2000 years, the priests and astronomers of Babylon deduced the eternal laws of nature and providence. They adored the seven gods or angels who directed the course of the seven planets, and shed their irresistible influence on the earth. The attributes of the seven planets, with the twelve signs of the zodiac, and the twenty-four constellations of the northern and southern hemisphere were represented by images and talismans; the seven days of the week were dedicated to their respective deities; the Sabians prayed thrice each day; and the temple of the moon at Haran was the term of their pilgrimage. But the flexible genius of their faith was always ready either to teach or to learn. The altars of Babylon were overturned by the Magians; but the injuries of the Sabians were revenged by the sword of Alexander; Persia groaned above 500 years under a foreign yoke, and the purest disciples of Zoroaster escaped from the contagion of idolatry, and breathed, with their adversaries, the freedom of the desert. Seven hundred years before the death of Mahomet the Jews were settled in Arabia; and a far greater multitude was expelled from the holy land in the wars of Titus and Hadrian. The industrious exiles aspired to liberty and power; they erected synagogues in the cities, and castles in the wilderness, and their Gentile converts were confounded with the children of Israel, whom they resembled in the outward mark of circumcision. The Christian missionaries were still more active and successful: the catholics asserted their universal reign, the sects whom they oppressed successively retired beyond the limits of the Roman empire; the Marcionites and Manichæans dispersed their fantastic opinions and apocryphal gospels; the churches of Yemen and the princes of Hira and Gassan were instructed in a purer creed by the Jacobite and Nestorian bishops. Such was the state of religion in Arabia previous to the appearance of Mahomet.

Mahomet came into the world under some disadvantages; his father, Abd'allah, was a

younger son of Abd'almotalleb, and dying very young, and in his father's life-time, left his widow and infant son in very mean circumstances, his whole substance consisting but of five camels and one Ethiopian she-slave. Abd'almotalleb was therefore obliged to take care of his grandchild Mahomet; which he not only did during his life, but at his death enjoined his eldest son Abu Taleb, who was brother to Abd'allah, by the same mother, to provide for him for the future, which he very affectionately did, and instructed him in the business of a merchant, which he followed, and to that end he took him into Syria, when he was but 13. He afterwards recommended him to Khadijah, a noble and rich widow, for her factor; in whose service he behaved so well that by making him her husband, she soon raised him to an equality with the richest in Mecca.

It was probably soon after he began, by this advantageous match, to live at his ease, that he formed a scheme of establishing a new religion. Before he made any attempt abroad, he rightly judged that it was necessary for him to begin with the conversion of his own household. Having therefore retired with his family, as he had done several times before, to a cave in mount Hara, he there opened the secret of his mission to his wife Khadijah; and acquainted her that the angel Gabriel had just before appeared to him, and told him that he was appointed the apostle of God; he also repeated to her a passage, which he pretended had been revealed to him by the ministry of the angel, with those other circumstances of this first appearance which are related by the Mahometan writers. Khadijah received the news with great joy; swearing by him in whose hands her soul was, that she trusted he would be the prophet of his nation; and immediately communicated what she had heard to her cousin Warakah Ebn Nawfal, who, being a Christian, could write in the Hebrew character, and was tolerably well versed in the scriptures; and he as readily came into her opinion, assuring her that the same angel who had formerly appeared unto Moses was now sent to Mahomet. The first overture the prophet made was in the month of Ramadan, in the 40th year of his age, which is therefore usually called the year of his mission.

The Mahometans divide their religion into two general parts, faith and practice; of which the first is divided into six distinct branches; belief in God, in his angels, in his scriptures, in his prophets, in the resurrection and final judgment, and in God's absolute decrees. The points relating to practice are prayer, with washings, &c. alms, fasting, pilgrimage to Mecca, and circumcision.

That both Mahomet, and those among his followers who are reckoned orthodox, had, and continue to have, just and true notions of God and his attributes, appears so plain from the Koran itself and all the Mahometan divines, that it would be loss of time to refute those who suppose the God of Mahomet to be different from the true God, and only a fictitious deity or idol of his own creation.

Besides angels and devils the Mahometans are taught by the Koran to believe an intermediate order of creatures, which they call jin or genii, created also of fire, but of a grosser fabric than angels, since they eat and drink, and propagate their species, and are subject to death. Some of these are supposed to be good and others bad, and capable of future salvation and damnation as men are; whence Mahomet pretended to be sent for the conversion of genii as well as men.

As to the scriptures, the Mahometans are taught by the Koran that God, in divers

ages of the world, gave revelations of his will in writing to several prophets, the whole and every one of which it is absolutely necessary for a good Moslem to believe. The number of those sacred books were, according to them, 104. Of which ten were given to Adam, 50 to Seth, 30 to Edris or Enoch, 10 to Abraham, and the other four, being the Pentateuch, the Psalms, the Gospel, and the Koran, were successively delivered to Moses, David, Jesus, and Mahomet; which last, being the seal of the prophets, those revelations are now closed, and no more are to be expected. All these divine books, except the four last, they agree now to be entirely lost, and their contents unknown; though the Sabians have several books which they attribute to some of the antedeluvian prophets; and of those four, the Pentateuch, Psalms, and Gospel, they say have undergone so many alterations and corruptions, that though there may possibly be some part of the true word of God therein, yet no credit is to be given to the present copies in the hands of the Jews and Christians. The Mahometans have also a gospel in Arabic, attributed to St. Barnabas, wherein the history of Jesus Christ is related in a manner very different from what we find in the true gospels, and correspondent to those traditions which Mahomet has followed in his Koran.

The number of prophets which have been, from time to time, sent by God into the world, amounts to no less than 224,000 according to one Mahometan tradition; or to 124,000 according to another, among whom 313 were apostles, sent with special commissions to reclaim mankind from infidelity and superstition; and six of them brought new laws or dispensations, which successively abrogated the preceding; these were Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, Jesus, and Mahomet.

When a corpse is laid in the grave, they say he is received by an angel, who gives him notice of the coming of the two examiners, who are two black, livid angels, of a terrible appearance, named Monkir and Nakir. These order the dead person to sit upright, and examine him concerning his faith, as to the unity of God and the mission of Mahomet; if he answer rightly, they suffer the body to rest in peace, and it is refreshed by the air of paradise; but if not, they beat him on the temples with iron maces, till he roars out for anguish, so loud that he is heard by all from east to west, except men and genii. They then press the earth on the corpse, which is gnawed and stung, till the resurrection, by 99 dragons, with seven heads each; or, as others say, their sins will become venomous beasts, the grievous ones stinging like dragons, the smaller like scorpions, and the other like serpents; circumstances which some understand in a figurative sense.

The soul, they hold, when it is separated from the body by the angel of death, who performs his office with ease and gentleness towards the good, and with violence towards the wicked, enters into that which they call al berzakh, or the interval between death and the resurrection. If the departed person was a believer, they say two angels meet it, who convey it to heaven, that its place there may be assigned according to its merit and degree. For they distinguish the souls of the faithful into three classes: the first of prophets, whose souls are admitted into paradise immediately; the second of martyrs, whose spirits, according to a tradition of Mahomet, rest in the crops of green birds, which eat of the fruits and drink of the rivers of paradise; and the third of other believers, concerning the state of whose souls before the resurrection, there are various opinions.

As to the punishment of the wicked after the resurrection, the Mahometans are taught

that hell is divided into seven stories or apartments, one below another, designed for the reception of as many distinct classes of the damned. The first, which they call Jehennam, they say will be the receptacle of those who acknowledged one God, that is the wicked Mahometans; who, after having there been punished according to their demerits, will, at length, be released. The second, named Ladha, they assign to the Jews; the third, named al Hotama, to the Christians; the fourth, named al Sair, to the Sabians; the fifth, named Sakar, to the Magians; the sixth, named al Jahim, to the idolaters; and the seventh, which is the lowest and worst of all, and is called al Hawyat, to the hypocrites, or those who outwardly professed some religion, but in their hearts were of none. Over each of these apartments they believe there will be set a guard of angels, 19 in number, to whom the damned will confess the just judgment of God, and beg them to intercede with him for some alleviation of their pain, or that they may be delivered by being annihilated.

Paradise, they say, is situated above the seven heavens (or in the seventh heaven) and next under the throne of God; and, to express the amenity of the place, tell us that the earth of it is of the finest wheat flour, or of the purest musk, or, as others will have it, of saffron; that its stones are pearls and jacinths, the walls of its buildings enriched with gold and silver, and that the trunks of its trees are of gold; among which the most remarkable is the tree called Tuba, or the tree of happiness. Concerning this tree they fable that it stands in the palace of Mahomet, though a branch of it will reach to the house of every true believer; that it will be laden with pomegranates, grapes, dates, and other fruits, of surprising bigness, and of tastes unknown to mortals. So that, if a man desire to eat of any particular kind of fruit, it will immediately be presented to him; or if he choose flesh, birds, ready dressed, will be set before him according to his wish. They add that the boughs of this tree will spontaneously bend down to the hand of the person who would gather of its fruits, and that it will supply the blessed not only with food but also with silken garments, and beasts to ride on, ready saddled and bridled, and adorned with rich trappings, which will burst forth from its fruits; and that this tree is so large that a person mounted on the fleetest horse would not be able to gallop from one end of its shade to the other in 100 years.

As plenty of water is one of the greatest additions to the pleasantness of any place, the Koran often speaks of the rivers of paradise as a principal ornament thereof; some of these rivers they say flow with water, some with milk, and some with wine, and others with honey, all taking their rise from the root of the tree Tuba.

But all these glories will be eclipsed by the resplendent and ravishing girls of paradise, called, from their large black eyes, Hur al oyum, the enjoyment of whose company will be a principal felicity of the faithful. These, they say, are created not of clay, as mortal women are, but of pure musk; being, as their prophet often affirms in his Koran, free from all natural impurities, defects, and inconveniences incident to the sex, of the strictest modesty, and secluded from public view, in pavilions of hollow pearls, so large, that as some traditions have it, one of them will be no less than four parasangs (or, as others say, 60 miles) long and as many broad.

The Mahometans pray five times in the 24 hours; viz. 1. In the morning, before sunrise. 2. When noon is past, and the sun begins to decline from the meridian. 3. In

the afternoon, before sun-set. 4. In the evening, after sun-set, and before day be shut in; and 5. After the day is shut in, and before the first watch of the night. They fast with great strictness during the whole month of Ramadan, from the time the new moon first appears, during which time they must abstain from eating, drinking, and women, from day-break till night or sun-set.

The pilgrimage to Mecca is so necessary a point of practice, that, according to a tradition of Mahomet, he who dies without performing it, may as well die a Jew or a Christian; and the same is expressly commanded in the Koran.

The temple of Mecca stands in the midst of the city, and is honoured with the title of Masjad al elharam, i. e. the sacred or inviolable temple. What is principally reverenced in this place, and gives sanctity to the whole is a square stone building called the Caaba.

To this temple every Mahometan, who has health and means sufficient, ought, once at least in his life, to go on pilgrimage; nor are women excused from the performance of this duty. The pilgrims meet at different places near Mecca, according to the different parts from whence they come, during the months of Shawal and Dhu'lkaada; being obliged to be there by the beginning of Dhu'lhajja; which month, as its name imports, is peculiarly set apart for the celebration of this solemnity.

At the place above mentioned the pilgrims properly commence such; when the men put on the Ibram or sacred habit, which consists only of two woollen wrappers; one wrapped about their middle to cover their privities, and the other thrown over their shoulders, having their heads bare, and a kind of slippers, which cover neither the heel nor the instep, and so enter the sacred territory in their way to Mecca. While they have this habit on, they must neither hunt nor fowl (though they are allowed to fish); which precept is so punctually observed that they will not kill even a louse or a flea, if they find them on their bodies; there are some noxious animals, however, which they have permission to kill during the pilgrimage, as kites, ravens, scorpions, mice, and dogs given to bite. During the pilgrimage it behoves a man to have a constant guard over his words and actions; to avoid all quarrelling or ill-language, all converse with women, and all obscene discourse; and to apply his whole attention to the good work he is engaged in.

The pilgrims being arrived at Mecca, immediately visit the temple; and then enter on the performance of the prescribed ceremonies, which consist chiefly in going in procession round the Caaba, in running between the mounts Safa and Merwa, in making the station on mount Arafat, and slaying the victims, and shaving their heads in the valley of Mina.

In compassing the Caaba, which they do seven times, beginning at the corner where the black stone is fixed, they use a short quick pace the three first times they go round it, and a grave, ordinary pace the four last; which, it is said was ordered by Mahomet, that his followers might show themselves strong and active, to cut off the hopes of the infidels, who gave out that the immoderate heats of Medina had rendered them weak. But the aforesaid quick pace they are not obliged to use every time they perform this piece of devotion, but only at some particular times. So often as they pass by the black stone they either kiss it or touch it with their hands and kiss that.

The running between Safa and Merwa is also performed seven times, partly with a

slow pace and partly running, for they walk gravely till they come to a place between two pillars; and there they run, and afterwards walk again; sometimes looking back and sometimes stopping, like one who had lost something, to represent Hagar seeking water for her son; for the ceremony is said to be as antient as her time.

On the ninth of Dhu'lhajja, after morning prayer, the pilgrims leave the valley of Mina, whither they come the day before; and proceed in a tumultuous and rushing manner to mount Arafat, where they stay to perform their devotions till sun-set; then they go to Mozdalifa, an oratory between Arafat and Mina; and there spend the night in prayer and reading the Koran. The next morning, by break of day, they visit al Mashar al Karam, or the sacred monument; and departing thence before sun rise, haste, by Batn Mohasser, to the valley of Mina, where they throw seven stones at three marks or pillars, in imitation of Abraham, who, meeting the devil at that place, and being by him disturbed in his devotions, or tempted to disobedience when he was going to sacrifice his son, was commanded by God to drive him away by throwing stones at him; though others pretend this rite to be as old as Adam, who also put the devil to flight in the same place, and by the same means.

This ceremony being over on the same day, the tenth of Dhu'lhajja, the pilgrims slay their victims in the said valley of Mina; of which they and their friends eat part, and the rest is given to the poor. These victims must either be sheep, goats, kine, or camels; males if of either of the two former kinds; and females of either of the latter; and of a fit age. The sacrifices being over, they shave their heads and cut their nails, burying them in the same place; after which the pilgrimage is looked on as completed; though they again visit the Caaba, to take their leave of that sacred building.

For some time the religion of Mahomet was very slowly propagated. Many of his relations remained long incredulous, and the tribe of Koreish persecuted the imposter with so great vehemence that he was obliged to retire to Medina. The inhabitants of this city had been most of them converted by one Masab, whom he had sent among them for that purpose. His retreat, which was not effected without great difficulty, is considered by the Mahometans as of so great importance, that they derive from thence the era of the Hegira, the first year of which corresponds with 622 of the Christian account.

Hitherto Mahomet had propagated his religion by fair means; so that the whole success of his enterprise, before his flight to Medina, must be attributed to persuasion only, and not to compulsion. For, before this, he had no permission to use any force at all; and in several places of the Koran, which he pretended were revealed during his stay at Mecca, he declares his business was only to preach and admonish; that he had no authority to compel any person to embrace his religion; and that whether people believe it or not was none of his concern, but belonged solely unto God. And he was so far from allowing his followers to use force, that he exhorted them to bear patiently those injuries which were offered them on account of their faith; and when persecuted himself choose rather to quit the place of his birth and retire to Medina, than to make any resistance. But this great passiveness and moderation seem entirely owing to his want of power, and the great superiority of his opposers for the first 12 years of his mission; for no sooner was he enabled, by the assistance of those of Medina, to make head against his enemies, than he gave out that God had allowed him and his followers to defend themselves against

the infidels; and at length, as his forces increased, he pretended to have the divine leave even to attack them; and to destroy idolatry, and set up the true faith by the sword; finding by experience that his designs would otherwise proceed very slowly, if they were not utterly overthrown.

Mahomet, being securely settled at Medina, and able, not only to defend himself against the insults of his enemies, but to attack them, began to send out small parties to make reprisals on the Koreish; the first party, consisting of no more than nine men, who intercepted and plundered a caravan belonging to that tribe, and in the action took two prisoners. But what established his affairs very much, and was the foundation on which he built all his succeeding greatness, was the gaining of the battle of Bedr, which was fought in the second year of the Hegira, and is famous in the Mahometan history. Some reckon no less than 27 expeditions wherein Mahomet was personally present, in nine of which he gave battle, besides several other expeditions, in which he was not present. His forces he maintained partly by the contributions of his followers for this purpose, which he called by the name of zacat or alms, and the paying of which he very artfully made one main article of his religion; and partly by ordering a fifth part of the plunder to be brought into the public treasury for that purpose; in which matter he likewise pretended to act by the divine direction.

The seventh year of the Hegira, Mahomet sent letters, announcing his mission, to the different princes, who possessed the command of Asia and the neighbouring parts of Africa, but this measure produced no important effect, unless that the king of Ethiopia is said to have avowed himself an adherent of the prophet.

The eighth year of the Hegira was a very fortunate year to Mahomet. In the beginning of it Khaled Ebn al Walid and Amru Ebn al As, both excellent soldiers, the first of whom afterwards conquered Syria and other countries, and the latter Egypt, became proselytes to Mahometanism. And soon after the prophet sent 3000 men against the Grecian forces, to revenge the death of one of his ambassadors, who, being sent to the governor of Bosra, on the same errand as those who went to the above-mentioned princes, was slain by an Arab of the tribe of Ghassan, at Muta, a town in the territory of Balha, in Syria, about three days journey eastward from Jerusalem, near which town they encountered. The Grecians, being vastly superior in number (for, including the auxiliary Arabs, they had an army of 100,000 men), the Mahometans were repulsed in the first attack, and lost successively three of their generals; viz. Zeid Ebn Haretha, Mahomet's freedman, Jaafar, the son of Abu Taleb, and Abdallah Ebn Rawaha; but Khaled Ebn al Walid, succeeding to the command, overthrew the Greeks with great slaughter, and brought away abundance of rich spoil; on occasion of which action Mahomet gave him the title of Saif min soyuf Allah, 'one of the swords of God.'

In this year also Mahomet took the city of Mecca, the inhabitants whereof had broken the truce, concluded on two years before. For the tribe of Becr, who were confederates with the Koreish, attacking those of Khozaah, who were allies of Mahomet, killed several of them, being supported in the action by a party of the Koreish themselves. The consequence of this violation was soon apprehended; and Abu Soscan himself made a journey to Medina, on purpose to heal the breach and renew the truce; but in vain; for Mahomet, glad of this opportunity, refused to see him: whereupon he applied to

Abu Becr and Ali; but they giving him no answer, he was obliged to return to Mecca as he came.

Mahomet immediately gave orders for preparations to be made, that he might surprise the Meccans while they were unprovided to receive him; in a little time he began his march thither; and by that time he came near the city his forces were increased to 10,000 men. Those of Mecca, not being in a condition to defend themselves against so formidable an enemy, surrendered at discretion; and Abu Sosian saved his life by turning Mahometan. About 28 of the idolaters were killed by a party under the command of Khaled; but this happened contrary to Mahomet's orders; who, when he entered the town, pardoned all the Koreish, on their submission, except only six men and four women, who were more obnoxious than ordinary. Some of them having apostatised were solemnly procribed by the prophet himself; but of these no more than three men and one woman were put to death, the rest obtaining pardon on their embracing Mahometanism, and one of the women making her escape.

The remainder of this year Mahomet employed in destroying the idols in and round Mecca, sending several of his generals on expeditions for that purpose, and to invite the Arabs to Islamism, wherein it is no wonder if they now met with success.

The next year, being the ninth of the Hegira, the Mahometans call the year of embassies; for the Arabs had been hitherto expecting the issue of the war between Mahomet and the Koreish; but so soon as that tribe, the principal of the whole nation, and the genuine descendants of Ishmael, whose prerogatives none offered to dispute, had submitted, they were satisfied that it was not in their power to oppose Mahomet, and therefore began to come in to him in great numbers, and to send embassies to make their submissions to him both to Mecca, while he staid there, and also to Medina, whither he returned this year. Among the rest, five kings of the tribe of Hamgar professed Mahometanism, and sent ambassadors to notify the same.

In the 10th year Ali was sent into Yaman to propagate the Mahometan faith there; and, as it is said, converted the whole tribe of Hamdan in one day. Their example was quickly followed by all the inhabitants of that province, except only those of Najran, who, being Christians, chose rather to pay tribute.

Thus was Mahometanism established and idolatry rooted out even in Mahomet's lifetime (for he died the next year) throughout all Arabia, except only Yamama, where Moseilama, who set up also for a prophet, as Mahomet's competitor, had a great party, and was not reduced till the kalifat of Abu Beer; and the Arabs being then united in one faith, and under one prince, found themselves in a condition of making those conquests which extended the Mahometan faith over so great a part of the world.

The death of Mahomet occasioned such a consternation in Mecca that the governor hid himself, fearing to be called to an account for his former conduct; and the inhabitants, upon the first arrival of this melancholy news, considered themselves as destitute of all manner of protection. After the first impressions of their fear, however, were over, they began to meditate a revolt; but were prevented by one Sohail Ebn Amru, a principal man of the Koreish. The tumults at Medina, however, were not so easily appeased. The news of this sad event was no sooner published there, than a number of people assembled before his door, crying out, "How can our apostle be dead? Our intercessor,

our mediator, has not entirely left us! He is taken up into heaven, as was Isa (Jesus); therefore he shall not be buried." This was confirmed by Omar; who drew his sword, and swore, that if any person affirmed Mahomet to be dead, he would cut off his hands and his feet. "The apostle of God (says he) is not dead; he is only gone for a season, as Moses, the son of Amram, was gone from the people of Israel, for forty days, and then returned to them again." The populace, therefore, kept the body above ground, even after the belly began to swell; nor could the prophet's uncle, al Abbas, notwithstanding this, convince them to the contrary. Upon hearing of these transactions, Abu Beer immediately posted from al Sonah, another quarter of the city, and expostulated with them in the following manner; "Do you worship Mahomet, or the God of Mahomet? If the latter, he is immortal and liveth for ever; but if the former, you are in a manifest error, for he is certainly dead." The truth of this assertion he immediately evinced from several passages of the Koran, in so clear and conclusive a manner that he not only satisfied Omar, but calmed the minds of all the people.

The prophet having left no directions concerning a successor, very warm disputes arose between the Mohajerin and the Ansars, about the right of electing a khalif. The former insisted on having that right, because they had attended Mahomet in his flight to Medina; and the others, because they had supported him when expelled from his native city, &c. In short, the disputes became so hot that an open rupture must have commenced, had they not been terminated by a proposal that each party should choose a khalif. This amused them a little for the present; but not proving perfectly agreeable to the Mohajerin, Abu Beer proposed two persons, Omar and Abu Obeidah, offering to swear allegiance to him on whom the suffrages of both parties should fall. But this producing no decision, Omar swore fealty to Abu Beer, and his example was followed by all the Moslems on the spot; upon which he was acknowledged, both by the Mohajerin and Ansars, as the rightful successor of Mahomet.

These transactions, however, were not at all agreeable to Ali, who, as son-in-law to the prophet, had, undoubtedly, the best title to the succession. He expostulated with Abu Beer about the manner of his election, which had been effected without his knowledge; and received for answer, that the exigence of affairs would not admit of deliberation; and that had not the election been so sudden, the opposite party would have wrested the power entirely out of their hands. Ali was in Fatima's apartment when Abu Beer had the good luck to be elected khalif; and, upon the arrival of the news, expressed great dissatisfaction. He found himself, however, soon obliged to change his note, when the new khalif sent Omar, with orders to burn the house, where he and his friends were assembled, in case he did not concur in supporting the election. But, notwithstanding his forced compliance on this occasion, it is not to be doubted that he reckoned himself injured; and his pretensions were thought to be just by a great number of Moslems; which notion is entertained by a very considerable party of Mahometans even at this day, and these are called Shiites or sectaries.

Abu Beer, having, by his generals, quelled the rebellions which were excited against him in Arabia, and overturned the kingdom of Hira, sent a large army, under Yezid Ebn Abu Sofian, to invade Syria. The orders he gave to this commander deserve to be recorded, as unfolding the spirit of one of the most respectable Mahometan invaders;

" Take care, Yezid Ebn Abu Sofian, to treat your men with tenderness and lenity. Consult with your officers on all pressing occasions, and encourage them to face the enemy with bravery and resolution. If you shall happen to be victorious, destroy neither old people, women, nor children. Cut down no palm trees, nor burn any fields of corn. Spare all fruit-trees, and slay no cattle, but such as you shall take for your own use. Adhere always inviolably to your engagements, and put none of the religious persons you shall meet with in monasteries to the sword. Offer no violence to the places they serve God in. As for those members of the synagogues of Satan, who shave their crowns, cleave their skulls, give them no quarter, except they embrace Islamism (Mahometanism), or pay tribute.

The next khalif, Omar, a man of very singular cast, was very successful. At the battle of Yermouk, his general, Khaled, defeated an immense army of the Christians, who are said to have had 150,000 men killed, and 40,000 taken prisoners.

This defeat was immediately followed by the loss of the whole province of Palestine. The reduction of Jerusalem was one of its first consequences, and Omar, being apprised of the success of his arms, immediately set out to visit that holy place, at the request, it is said, of the inhabitants. The khalif was attended on his journey by a numerous retinue, most of whom afterwards returned home. He rode upon a red camel, and carried with him two sacks, one of which contained a sort of provision, consisting of barley, rice, or wheat, sodden and unhusked; and the other fruits. Before him he had a leather bottle, very necessary in these desert countries, to put water in; and behind him a wooden platter. Before he left the place where he had rested the preceding night, he constantly said the morning prayer; after which he addressed himself to his attendants in a devout strain, always uttering before them some pious ejaculations. Then he communicated his provision to them; every one of his fellow travellers eating with him out of the same platter, without the least distinction. His clothes were made of camels' hair, and were in a very tattered condition; nor could any thing be more mean or sordid than the figure he made. On the road he distributed justice among his subjects; concerning which we have several anecdotes; but that most to his honour is the following. Having observed some poor tributaries exposed to the heat of the sun, a very cruel punishment in those hot countries, for not being able to pay the sum demanded of them, he ordered them to be released; telling his attendants that he once heard the apostle of God say, " Do not afflict men in this world; for those who do so God shall punish in hell-fire at the day of judgment." His orders were immediately executed, to the great grief of the oppressors; and the khalif continued his route. On the confines of Syria he was met by Aub Obeidah, attended by an escort, who conducted him to the Moslem camp, where he was received with the utmost demonstrations of joy; and from thence to Jerusalem. The morning after his arrival he said prayers, and preached to the troops. In his sermon he repeated the following passage out of the Koran. " Whomsoever God shall direct he shall rightly be directed; and whomsoever he shall cause to err, thou shalt not find any to defend or to direct." Upon this a Christian rose up, and said aloud twice, " God causeth no one to err." Omar made no answer to him, but commanded the Moslems near him to strike off the infidel's head, if he repeated those words again; but the priest took care to give him no further interruption. After the conclusion of his sermon, he pitched his tent, made

hair, within sight of the city; then he signed the articles of capitulation; by which the inhabitants were entitled to the free exercise of their religion, the possession of their properties, and his protection.

The articles of capitulation being signed, Omar, in pursuance of his engagements, gave the inhabitants a schedule, by which they were secured in the full possession of all that had been agreed upon; after which the gates were opened to him, and he entered the town. He was waited upon by the patriarch Sophronius, with whom he conversed familiarly, and asked him many questions concerning the antiquities of the city. One of the first places they visited was the temple of the resurrection, in the midst of which Omar sat down; and when the hour of prayer was come, told the patriarch he had a mind to pray, and desired him to show him a place for that purpose. Sempronius told him he might do so where he was; but this he absolutely refused. Then the patriarch led him to St. Constantine's church, but he likewise declined praying there. At last he said his prayers upon one of the steps of the east gate of the church; telling the patriarch afterwards, that, had he prayed in any of the churches, the Moslems would infallibly have taken it from them, which, he said, they might attempt as it was, and therefore gave him a paper, wherein the Moslems were commanded not to pray on the steps of St. Constantine's church in any numbers, but only one by one. After this he desired the patriarch to show him a place where he might erect a mosque; and was conducted to the place where Jacob's stone lay, on which he slept when he saw the vision of the ladder. This stone had been hitherto slighted, and no building suffered to be erected upon it, in order to fulfil our Saviour's prophecy, that the habitation of the Jews should be left unto them desolate, and that not one stone should be left upon another. In consequence of this neglect it was entirely covered with dirt, which the khalif immediately began to carry away in his vest, and the Moslems soon hastening to assist him, the stone was cleared in a very short time. We are told by Theophanes, that when Omar entered the temple of the resurrection, he was clad in such a mean and dirty apparel that the patriarch took great offence at his appearance, and, with much difficulty, at last prevailed upon him to put on some clean linen and clothes, till his own could be washed. The same author relates, that when the patriarch first saw Omar in that place, he could not forbear crying out, "This is, of a truth, the abomination of desolation, spoken of by Daniel the prophet, standing in the holy place!" These words, as Mr. Ockley imagines, being overheard by the Moslems, they trumped up a story, of the patriarch's having owned that the conquest of Jerusalem by Omar was foretold by the prophet Daniel; and that an antient prophecy was kept in Jerusalem concerning Omar, wherein his person was described, his name and religion specified, and he declared to be the only man that could reduce that city.

Before the death of Omar, the Saracen empire extended over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, Tripoli, and a great part of Persia. The conquest of the latter kingdom was completed under Othman, the third khalif. He was succeeded by Ali, the son-in-law of Mahomet; under whom those religious disputes broke out, which greatly retarded the advancement of the Moslem affairs. After Ali, the khalifate became hereditary in the house of Ommiah, whose history affords little else than an account of the most dreadful civil commotions. They, however, were able to achieve the conquests of Barbary, Sicily, and Spain. The house of Abas ascended the throne of Mahomet about the year of the Hegira 130,

they transferred the seat of the khalifate from Damascus to Caffa, and afterwards to Bagdad, on the banks of the Tygris. Thither the khalif Al-Mansur attracted the arts and sciences. The Greeks had furnished ideas and communicated taste to their barbarous conquerors; a species of triumph reserved for civilized nations, even in a state of servitude. Al-Mohdi, successor of Al-Mansur, cultivated these precious seeds, and Al-Raschid, successor of Al-Mohdi, augmented their fecundity by his knowledge and attention, being equally liberal and enlightened. Under Al Mamum, Al-Motasem, Al-Watheck, and their immediate successors, the sciences flourished still more; but at length dissensions and civil wars robbed the Arabs, in their turn, of the fruits of genius and the lights of learning, which are almost inseparable from public tranquillity.

In the year 935, the khalif Al-Radi, seeing nothing left to him but the city of Bagdad, and finding himself distressed on all sides by usurpers, and having a vizier of no capacity, instituted a new office, superior to that of vizier, which he entitled Emir Al Omra, or commandant of commandants. This great officer was trusted with the direction of all military affairs, and had the entire management of the finances, in a much more absolute and unlimited manner than any of the khalifs' viziers ever had. Nay, he officiated for the khalif in the great mosque at Bagdad, and had his name mentioned in the public prayers throughout the kingdom. In short, the khalif was so much under the power of this officer, that he could not apply a single dinar to his own use without the leave of the Emir Al Omra. In the year 325 the Moslem empire, once so great and powerful, was shared among the following usurpers.

The cities of Wasct, Basra, and Cufa, with the rest of the Ambian Irak, were considered as the property of the Emir Al Omra, though they had been, in the beginning of the year, seized upon by a rebel, called Al Baridi, who could not be driven out of them.

The country of Fars, Farsestan, or Persia properly so called, was possessed by Amado'ddawla Ali Ebn Buiya, who resided in the city of Shiraz.

Part of the tract denominated Al Jebal, together with Persian Irak, which is the mountainous part of Persia, and the country of the antient Parthians, obeyed Rucno'ddowla, the brother of Amado'ddawla, who resided at Ispahan. The other part of the country was possessed by Washmakin, the Deylamite.

Diyar Rabia, Diyar Becr, Diyar Modah, and the city of Al Mawsel or Mosul, acknowledged for their sovereign a race of princes called Hamdanites.

Egypt and Syria no longer obeyed the khalifs but Mahomet Ebn Tai who had formerly been appointed governor of these provinces.

Africa and Spain had long been independent.

Cicily and Crete were governed by princes of their own

The provinces of Khorasan and Mawaralnahr were under the dominion of Al Nasr Ebn Ahmed, of the dynasty of the Sammarians.

The provinces of Tabrestan, Jorjan or Georgiana and Mazanderan, had kings of the first dynasty of the Deylamites.

The province of Kerman was occupied by Abu Ali Mahomet Eby Eylia Al Sammani, who had made himself master of it a short time before.

Lastly, the provinces of Yamama and Bahrein, including the district of Hajr, were in the possession of Abu Thaher, the Karmatian.

Thus the khalifs were deprived of all their dominions, and reduced to the rank of sovereign pontiffs; in which light, though they continued for some time to be regarded by the neighbouring princes, yet their power never arrived to any height. In this low state the khalifs continued till the year of the Hegira 656, commencing January 8th, 1258. This year was rendered remarkable by the taking of Bagdad by Hulaku, the Mogul or Tartar; who likewise abolished the khalifate, putting the reigning khalif, Al Mostasem Billah, to a most cruel death. These diabolical conquerors, after they had taken the city, massacred, according to custom, a vast number of the inhabitants; and after they had plundered it, set it on fire. The spoil they took from thence was prodigiously great, Bagdad being then looked upon as the first city in the world.

While the power of the khalifs was thus rapidly declining, a mighty conqueror arose in Khorasan, Sultan Mahmud, equally renowned for his inflexible justice towards his own subjects, and for the relentless cruelty with which he ravaged the dominions of his neighbours. He twelve times invaded India, obliging its rajahs to become tributary, demolishing its temples, and returning with incalculable plunder. At Gazna, his capital, he founded an university, and was surrounded by the most learned and ingenious men which could then be furnished by the East; among whom was Hafez, one of the most celebrated of the Persian poets. When he found his end approaching, this brave and fortunate, but rapacious conqueror, commanded that all the sacks of gold and caskets of precious stones, which were in the treasury should be placed in order before him, on which having long and attentively fixed his eyes, he remained for some minutes silent, and then burst into tears. He ordered, the following day, a review of his army, his elephants, camels, horses, and chariots, with which, having for some time feasted his eye from his travelling throne, he again shed a flood of tears, and retired, in anguish of heart, to his palace. His disorder, which was a slow or hectic fever, occasioned by an ulcer in his lungs, daily gaining ground, he, by a solemn deed, appointed his youngest son, Mohammed, to succeed him in the sovereignty of all his vast dominions, except that of the Persian Irak, which he had given to Mussud, his eldest; and shortly after expired, at the palace of Gazna, in the sixty-third year of his age and thirty-fifth of his reign, in the 421st year of the Hegira, and 1030 of the Christian era.

In the year 1158 the empire of Gazna fell to pieces, from the same causes by which other large and unwieldy states have been destroyed. The western and largest part, which still retained the name of Gazna, was seized upon by the family of Gaurides, so named from Gaur or Ghor, a province beyond the Indian Caucasus; while those contiguous to both shores of the Indus were allowed to remain in the possession of Chuserd or Cusroe, whose capital was fixed at Lahore. In 1184 the posterity of this prince were driven out of their territories by the Gaurides; by which means the Mahammedans became neighbours to the Hindoos, and, in a short time, began to extend their dominions to the eastward. In 1194 Mohammed Gori penetrated into Hindostan as far as Benares, and repeated the same scenes of devastation which had formerly taken place under Mahmud Gazni. At this period major Rennel is of opinion that the purity of the language of Hindostan began to decline, and continued to do so till it became what it is at present; the original dialect being what is called the Sanscrit, and which is now a dead language. Mohammed Gori also reduced the southern part of the province Agemere, and the territory

W. Meinig del. I. Walker sculp.

SEPULCHRES of the JUDGES of ISRAEL.

to the south of the river Jumna, taking possession of the strong fortress of Gualior. After his death, in 1205, the empire of Gazna was again divided; and the Patan or Afghan empire was founded by Cuttub, who had the Indian part, the Persian remaining to Eldoze. Cuttub fixed his imperial residence at Delhi; and in 1210 the greatest part of Hindostan Proper was conquered by the emperor Altumish, the successor of Cuttub.

In the reign of the last mentioned prince appeared the great Mogul conqueror, who is commonly called Jenjis khan, but whose original name was Temujin. This hero is said, by the Tartars, to have been of divine origin, since his family could be traced no farther back than ten generations, the mother of whom was got with child by a spirit. The names and transactions of his predecessors are equally uncertain and important: he himself, however, was born in the year 1163, and is said to have come into the world with congealed blood in his hands; from whence it was prognosticated that he would be a great warrior, and obtain the victory over all his enemies.

This prediction, if any such there was, Temujin most literally fulfilled. At the time of his father's decease his subjects amounted to between 30,000 and 40,000 families: but of these two thirds quickly deserted, and Temujin was left almost without subjects. When only 13 years of age he fought a bloody battle against these revolters; but either was defeated or gained an indecisive victory; so that he remained in obscurity for 27 years longer. His good fortune at last he owed to the friendship of Vang Khan, who ruled over a great number of Tartar tribes to the north of Kitay, and has been heard of under the name of Prester John among the Europeans. This prince took Temujin under his protection; and a rebellion being afterwards raised against himself, Temujin was made his general, and the khan was kept in possession of his throne; soon after which Temujin subdued the tribes which had revolted from himself, treating them at the same time with the utmost barbarity.

This happened in the year 1201; but Vang Khan, instead of continuing the friend of Temujin, now became jealous, and resolved to destroy him by treachery. With this view he proposed a marriage between Temujin's son, Juji, and his own daughter; and another between Temujin's daughter and his own son. Temujin was invited to the camp of Vang Khan, in order to celebrate this double marriage; but receiving intelligence of some evil intended him, he excused himself to Vang Khan's messengers, and desired that the ceremony might be put off to some other time.

A few days after the departure of these messengers, Badu and Kishlik, two brothers, who kept the horses of one of Vang Khan's chief domestics, came and informed Temujin that the grand khan, finding he had missed his aim, was resolved to set out instantly, and surprize him the next morning before he could suspect any danger. Temujin, alarmed at this intelligence, quitted his camp in the night-time, and retired, with all his people, to some distance. He was scarce gone when Vang Khan's troops arrived, and discharged an incredible number of arrows among the empty tents; but finding nobody there, they pursued Temujin in such haste that they fell into great disorder. In this condition they were suddenly attacked and routed by Temujin; after which an open war with Vang Khan took place.

By this quarrel almost all the princes of Tartary were put in motion, some siding with Temujin and others with Vang Khan. But at last fortune declared in favour of the

former; Vang Khan was overthrown in a battle where he lost 40,000 men; and obliged to fly for refuge to a prince named Tayyan Khan, who was Temujin's father, and his own enemy, and by whom he was ungenerously put to death. Temujin immediately began to sieze on his dominions, great part of which voluntarily submitted; but a confederacy was formed against him by a number of Vang Khan's tributaries, at the head of whom was Jamuka, a prince who had already distinguished himself by his enmity to Temujin; and even Tayyan Khan himself was drawn into the plot, through jealousy of his son-in law's good fortune. But Temujin was well prepared; and, in the year 1204, attacked Tayyan Khan, entirely routed his army, killed himself, and took Jemuka prisoner, whose head he caused instantly to be struck off; after which he marched against the other tribes who had conspired against him. Them he quickly reduced; took a city called Kashin, where he put all to the sword who had borne arms against him, and reduced all the Mogul tribes in 1205.

Temujin, now having none to oppose him, called a general diet, which he appointed to be held on the first day of spring, 1206; that is the day in which the sun entered Aries. To this diet were summoned all the great lords, both Moguls and Tartars; and, in the mean time, to establish good order in the army, he divided his soldiers into bodies of 10,000, 1000, 100, and 10 men, with their respective officers, all subordinate to the generals, or those who commanded the bodies of 10,000, and these were to act under his own sons. On the day of holding the diet, the princes of the blood and great lords appeared, dressed in white. Temujin, dressed in the same manner, with his crown on his head, sat down on his throne, and was complimented by the whole assembly, who wished him the continuance of health and prosperity. After this they confirmed the Mogul empire to him and his successors, adding all those kingdoms which he had subdued; the descendants of whose vanquished khans were deprived of all right or title to them; and after this he was proclaimed emperor with much ceremony. During this inauguration a pretended prophet declared that he came from God to tell the assembly that from thenceforth Temujin should assume the name of Jenghiz Khan, or the most great khan of khans; prophesying also that all his posterity should be khans from generation to generation. This prophecy, which was, no doubt, owing to Temujin himself, had a surprising effect on his subjects, who, from that time, concluded that all the world belonged of right to them, and even thought it a crime against heaven for any body to pretend to resist them.

Jenghiz Khan, having now reduced under his subjection all the wandering tribes of Moguls and Tartars, began to think of reducing those countries to the south and south-west of his own, where the inhabitants were much more civilized than his own subjects; and the countries being full of fortified cities, he must of course expect to meet with more resistance. He began with the emperor of Hya, whose dominions he invaded in 1209, who at last submitted to become his tributary. But in the mean time Jenghiz Khan himself was supposed to be tributary to the emperor of Kitay, who, in 1210, sent him an officer, demanding the customary tribute. This was refused with the utmost indignation, and a war commenced, which ended not but with the dissolution of the empire of Kitay.

In the year 1216 Jenghiz Khan resolved to carry his arms westward, and therefore left his general Muchuli to pursue his conquests in Kitay. In his journey westward he

overthrew an army of 300,000 Tartars, who had revolted against him; and in 1218 sent ambassadors, desiring an alliance with Mohammed Karazm Shah, emperor of Gazna. His ambassador was haughtily treated; however the alliance was concluded; but soon after broken, through the treachery, as it is said, of the Karazmian monarch's subjects. This brought on a war, attended with the most dreadful devastations, and which ended with the entire destruction of the empire of Karazm or Gazna.

After the reduction of Karazm, part of the Moguls broke into Iran or Persia, where also they made large conquests while others of their armies invaded Georgia and the countries to the west; all this time committing such enormities that the Chinese historians say both men and spirits burst with indignation. In 1225 Jenghiz Khan returned to Hya, where he made war on the emperor for having sheltered some of his enemies. The event was that the emperor was slain, and his kingdom conquered, or rather destroyed, which, however, was the last exploit of this most cruel conqueror, who died in 1227, as he marched to complete the destruction of the Chinese.

The Mogul empire, at the death of Jenghiz Khan, extended over a prodigious tract of country; being more than 1800 leagues in length from east to west, and upwards of 1000 in breadth from north to south. Its princes, however, were still insatiable, and pushed on their conquests on all sides. Oktay was acknowledged the emperor after Jenghiz Khan, and had, under his immediate government, Mogulestan (the country of the Moguls properly so called), Kitay, and the countries eastward to the Tartarian sea. Jagaty, his brother, governed under him a great part of the western conquests. The country of the Kipjacks and others to the east and north-east, north and north-west, were governed by Batu or Patu, the son of Jugi, who had been killed in the wars; while Tuli or Toley, another son of Jenghiz Khan, had Khorassan, Persia, and what part of India was conquered. On the east side the Mogul arms were still attended with success; not only the empire of Kitay but the southern part of China was conquered. On the west side matters continued much in the same way till the year 1254; when Magu or Menkho, the fourth khan of the Moguls, (the same who was afterwards killed at a siege in China), raised a great army, which he gave to his brother Hulaku or Hulagu, to extend his dominions westward.

After putting a period to the khalifate, and reducing Syria, Hulaku died in 1264, and at his death we may fix the greatest extent of the Mogul empire. It now comprehended the whole of the continent of Asia, excepting part of Hindostan, Siam, Pegu, Cochin-China, and a few of the countries of the Lesser Asia, which had not been attacked by them; and during all these vast conquests no Mogul army had ever been conquered, except one by Jaloloddin. From this period, however, the empire began to decline. The ambition of the khans having prompted them to invade the kingdoms of Japan and Cochin-China, they were miserably disappointed in their attempts, and lost a great number of men. The same bad success attended in Hindostan; and in a short time this mighty empire broke into several smaller ones. The governors of Persia, being of the family of Jenghiz Khan, owned no allegiance to any superior; those of Tartary did the same. The Chinese threw off the yoke; and thus the continent wore much the same face that it had done before Jenghiz Khan began his conquests.

The successors of Hulaku reigned in Persia till the year 1335; but that year Abusaid

Khan, the eighth from Hulaku, dying, the affairs of that country fell into confusion, for want of a prince of the race of Jenghiz Khan to succeed to the throne; the empire therefore was divided among a great number of petty princes, who fought against each other almost without intermission, till, in the year 1369, Timur Bek or Tamerlane, one of these princes, having conquered a number of others, was crowned at Balkh, with the pompous title of Saheb Karan; that is, "the emperor of the age and conqueror of the world." As he had just before taken that city, and destroyed one of his most formidable rivals, who had shut himself up in it, the new emperor began his reign with beheading some of the inhabitants, imprisoning others, burning their houses, and selling the women and children for slaves. In 1370 he crossed the Sihun, made war on the Getes, and attacked Kharezm. Next year he granted a peace to his enemies: but two years after he again invaded the country of the Getes, and by the year 1379 had fully conquered that country, as well as Korazan, and from that time he continued to extend his conquests in much the same manner as Jenghiz Khan had done, though with less cruelty. In 1387 he reduced Armenia, Georgia, and all Persia; the conquest of which last was completed by the reduction of Ispahan; 70,000 of the inhabitants of which were slaughtered on account of a sedition raised by some rash or evil disposed persons.

After the reduction of Persia Timur turned his arms northward and westward, subduing all the countries to the Euphrates. He took the city of Bagdad; subdued Syria; and having ravaged great part of Russia, returned to Persia in 1396, where he splendidly feasted his whole army. In 1398 he invaded Hindostan, crossed the Indus on the 17th of September, reduced several fortresses, and made a vast number of captives. However he was afraid that, in case of any emergency, these prisoners might take part with the enemy, he gave orders to his soldiers to put all their Indian slaves to death; and, in consequence of this inhuman order, more than 100,000 of these poor wretches were slaughtered in less than an hour.

In the beginning of the year 1399 Timur was met by the Indian army; whom, after a desperate battle, he defeated with great slaughter, and soon after took the city of Dehli, the capital of the country. Here he seated himself on the throne of the Indian emperors, and here the sharifs, kadis, and principal inhabitants of the city came to make their submission, and begged for mercy. The tame elephants and rhinoceroses likewise were brought to kneel before him, as they had been accustomed to do to the Indian emperors, and made a great cry, as if they implored his clemency. These war-elephants, 120 in number, were, at his return, sent to Samarcand, and to the province where his sons resided. After this, at the request of the lords of the court, Timur made a great feast, at which he distributed presents to the princes and principal officers.

Dehli at this time consisted of three cities, called Seyri, Old Dehli, and Jehan Penah, which was sorrounded with a wall in form of a circle. Old Dehli was the same, but much larger, lying south-west of the other. These two parts were joined on each side by a wall; and the third, lying between them, was called Jehan Penah, which was larger than Old Dehli. Penah had 10 gates, Seyri had seven, three of which looked towards Jehan Penah; this last had 13 gates, six to the north-west and seven to the south-east. Every thing seemed to be in a quiet posture, when, on the 12th of January, 1399, the soldiers of Timur, being assembled at one of the gates of Dehli, insulted the inhabitants

of the suburbs. The great emirs were ordered to put a stop to these disorders; but their endeavours were not effectual The soltanas, having a curiosity to see the rarities of Dehli, and particularly a famous palace, adorned with 1000 pillars, built by an antient king of India, went in with all the court; and the gate being on that occasion left open for every body, above 15,000 soldiers got in unperceived. But there was a far greater number of troops in a large place between Dehli, Seyri, and Jehan Penah, who committed great disorders in the two last cities. This made the inhabitants, in despair, fall on them; and many, setting fire to their houses, burnt their wives and children. The soldiers, seeing this confusion, did nothing but pillage the houses; while the disorder was increased by the admission of more troops, who seized the inhabitants of the neighbouring places, who had fled thither for shelter. The emirs, to put a stop to this mischief, caused the gates to be shut, but they were quickly opened by the soldiers within, who rose in arms against their officers; so that, by the morning of the 13th, the whole army was entered, and this great city was totally destroyed. Some soldiers carried out 150 slaves, men, women, and children; nay, some of their boys had 20 slaves a-piece to their share. The other spoils, in jewels, plate, and manufactures, were immense; for the Indian women and girls were adorned with precious stones, and had bracelets and rings on their hands and feet, and even toes, so that the soldiers were loaded with them. On the 15th, in Old Dehli, the Indians retired into the great mosque, to defend themselves; but being attacked by the Tartars, they were all slaughtered, and towers erected with their heads. A dreadful carnage now ensued throughout the whole city, and several days were employed before the inhabitants could be made to quit it entirely; and as they went the emirs took a number of them for their service. The artisans were also distributed among the princes and commanders; all but the masons, who were reserved for the emperor, in order to build him a spacious stone mosque at Samarcand

After this terrible devastation, Timur marched into the different provinces of Hindostan, every where defeating the Indians who opposed him, and slaughtering the Ghebrs or worshippers of fire. On the 25th of March he set out on his return, and on the 9th of May arrived at Samarcand. In a few months after his arrival he was obliged to undertake an expedition into Persia, where affairs were in the utmost disorder, on account of the misconduct of his son, whom he had appointed sovereign of that empire. Here Timur soon settled matters; after which he again set out on an expedition westward, reduced many places in Georgia, which had not submitted before, and invaded and conquered Syria. At the same time he quarrelled with Bajazet, the Turkish sultan, then busied in an enterprise against Constantinople, in which he would probably have succeeded had not Timur interposed. The cause of this quarrel at first was that Bajazet had demanded tribute from a prince, who was under Timur's protection, and is said to have returned an insulting answer to the Tartar ambassadors, who were sent to him on that account. Timur, however, was an enthusiast in the cause of Mahometanism, and considered Bajazet as engaged in the cause of heaven, when besieging a Christian city, was very unwilling to disturb him in so pious a work; and therefore undertook several expeditions against the princes of Syria and Georgia, in order to give the Turkish monarch time to cool and return to reason. Among other places he again invested the city of Bagdad, which had cast off his allegiance; and having taken it by storm, made such a dreadful

massacre of the inhabitants that 120 towers were erected with the heads of the slain. In the mean time Bajazet continued to give fresh provocation, by protecting one Kara Yusef, a robber, who had even insulted the caravan of Mecca; so that Timur at length resolved to make war upon him. The sultan, however, foreseeing the danger of bringing such a formidable enemy against himself, thought proper to ask pardon, by a letter, for what was past, and promise obedience to Timur's will for the future. This embassy was graciously received; and Timur returned for answer that he would forbear hostilities, provided Bajazet would either put Kara Yusef to death, send him to the Tartar camp, or expel him out of his dominions. Along with the Turkish ambassadors he sent one of his own; telling Bajazet that he would march into the confines of Anatolia, and there wait his final answer.

Though Bajazet had seemed at first willing to come to an agreement with Timur, and to dread his superior power; yet he now behaved in such an unsatisfactory manner, that the Tartar monarch desired him to prepare for war; upon which he raised the siege of Constantinople, and having met Timur, with an army greatly inferior to the Tartars, was utterly defeated and taken prisoner. According to some accounts he was treated with great humanity and honour; while others inform us that he was shut up in an iron cage, against which he dashed out his brains the following year. At any rate it is certain that he was not restored to liberty, but died in confinement.

This victory was followed by the submission of many places of the Lesser Asia to Timur; the Greek emperor owned himself his tributary, as did also the sultan of Egypt. After this Timur once more returned to Georgia, which he cruelly ravaged; after which he marched to Samarcand, where he arrived in the year 1405. Here, being now an old man, this mighty conqueror began to look forward to that state, which, at one time or other, is the dread of all living creatures; and Timur, in order to quiet the remorses of his own conscience, came to the following curious resolution, which he communicated to his intimate friends; namely, that "as the vast conquests he had made were not obtained without some violence, which occasioned the destruction of a great number of God's creatures, he was resolved, by way of atonement for his past crimes, to perform some good action; namely to make war on the infidels, and exterminate the idolaters of China." This atonement, however, he did not live to accomplish, for he died the same year, of a burning fever, in the 71st year of his age and 36th of his reign.

On the death of Timur his empire fell immediately into great disorder, and the civil wars continued for five or six years; but at last peace was restored, by the settlement of Shah Rukh, Timur's son, on the throne. He did not, however, enjoy the empire in its full extent, or, indeed, much above one half of it; having only Karazm, Khorassan, Kandahar, Persia, and part of Hindostan. Neither was he able, though a brave and warlike prince, to extend his dominions, though he transmitted them to his son Uleg Beg. He proved a wise and learned monarch, and is famous for the astronomical tables which he caused to be composed, and which are well known at this day. He was killed in 1448, by his son Abdollatif, who, six months after, was put to death by his own soldiers. After the death of Abdollatif, Abdollah, a grandson of Shah Rukh, seized his throne; but after reigning one year, was expelled by Abusaid Mirza, the grandson of Miran, the son of Timur. His reign was one continued scene of wars and tumults; till at last he was

defeated and taken prisoner by one Hassan Beg, who put him to death in 1468. From this time we may look upon the empire of Timur as entirely dissolved; though his descendants still reigned in Persia and Hindostan, the latter of which is still known by the name of the Mogul's empire.

Persia was held by a great number of petty tyrants till the beginning of the 16th century, when it was conquered by Shah Ismael Safi, or Sefi, of whose family we have the following account. His father was Sheykh Hayder or Haydr, the son of Sultan Juneyd, the son of Sheykh Ibrahim, the son of Sheykh Ali, the son of Sheykh Musa, the son of Sheykh Sefi, who was the 13th, in a direct line, from Ali, the son-in-law of the prophet Mahomet. When Tamerlane returned from the defeat of Bajazet, the Turkish sultan, he carried with him a great number of captives out of Karamania and Anatolia, all of whom he intended to put to death, on some remarkable occasion; and with this resolution he entered Ardebil or Ardevil, a city of Aderbijan, about 25 miles to the east of Taurus, where he continued for some days. At this time lived in that city Sheykh Safi or Sefi, above mentioned, reputed, by the inhabitants, to be a saint; and as such, much reverenced by them. The fame of Safi's sanctity so much moved Tamerlane that he paid him frequent visits; and when he was about to depart, promised to grant whatever favour he should ask. Sheykh Safi, who had been informed of Tamerlane's design to put the captives to death, requested of the conqueror that he would spare the lives of these unfortunate men. Tamerlane, desirous of obliging him, not only granted this request, but delivered them up to him to be disposed of as he thought fit; upon which the Sheykh furnished them with clothes and other necessaries, as well as he could, and sent them to their respective countries. This generous action proved very beneficial to the family; for the people were so much affected with such an extraodinary instance of virtue, that they repaired, in great numbers, to Safi, bringing with them considerable presents, and this so frequently, that few days passed in which he was not visited by many. Thus the descendants of the Sheykh made a conspicuous figure till the year 1486, when they were all destroyed by the Turkomans, except Ismael, who fled to Ghilan, where he lived under the protection of the king of that country; after which he became conspicuous for the following reason.

There was, at that time, among the Mahometans, a vast number of people, dispersed over Asia; and among these a particular party, who followed that of Haydr, the father of Ismael, which Sheykh Safi, one of his ancestors, had brought into great reputation. Ismael, who had assumed the surname of Sofi or Sage, finding that Persia was all in confusion, and hearing that there was a great number of the Hayderian sect in Karamania, removed thither. There he collected 7000 of his party, all devoted to the interest of his family; and while he was yet only 14 years of age conquered Shirzan. After this he pursued his conquests; and as his antagonists never united to oppose him, had conquered the greatest part of Persia, and reduced the city of Bagdad by the year 1510. However his conquests on the west side were soon stopped by the Turks; for in 1511 he received a great defeat from Selim I. who took Tauris; and would probably have crushed the empire of Ismael in its infancy, had he not thought the conquest of Egypt more important than that of Persia. After his defeat by Selim, Ismael never undertook any thing of consequence. He died in 1523, leaving the crown to his eldest son, Thamasp I.

The new Shah was a man of very limited abilities and was therefore invaded by the Turks almost instantly on his accession to the throne. However they were obliged to retreat by an inundation, which overflowed their camp, and which frightened them with its red colour, probably arising from the nature of the soil over which it passed. Thamasp, however, reduced Georgia to a province of the Persian empire; that country being in his time divided among a number of petty princes, who, by reason of their divisions, were able to make little opposition.

The reigns of the succeeding princes afford nothing remarkable, till the time of Shah Abbas I. surnamed the Great. He ascended the throne in the year 1584; and his first care was to recover from the Turks and Tartars the large provinces they had seized, which formerly belonged to the Persian empire. He began by declaring war against the latter, who had seized the finest part of Korassan. Accordingly, having raised a powerful army, he entered that province, where he was met by Abdallah Khan, the chief of the Usbeck Tartars. The two armies lay in sight of each other for six months; but at length Abbas attacked and defeated his enemies, forcing them for that time to abandon Koressan. Here he continued for three years; and on his leaving that place, fixed the seat of government at Ispahan, where it has continued ever since. His next expedition was against the Turks. Understanding that the garrison of Tauris was in no expectation of an enemy, he formed a design of surprising the place; and having privately assembled a few forces, he marched with such celerity that he reached a pass called Shibli, very near Tauris, in six days, though it is usually 18 or 20 days journey for the caravans. Here the Turks had posted a few soldiers, rather for the purpose of collecting the customs on such commodities as were brought in that way, than of defending the pass against an enemy. Before they came in sight of this pass, Abbas and some of his officers left the rest of the army and rode briskly up to the turnpike. Here the secretary of the custom house, taking them for merchants, demanded the usual duties. Abbas replied that the person who had the purse was behind, but at the same time ordered some money to be given him. But while the secretary was counting it, he was suddenly stabbed, by the Shah's order; and the officers who were with him, falling upon the few soldiers who were there, obliged them to submit; after which he entered the pass with his army. The governor of Tauris marched out with all the troops he could collect on so short a warning; but being inferior to the Persians, he was utterly defeated, and himself taken prisoner; after which the city was obliged to submit, as also a number of places in the neighbourhood. One city only, called Orami, being very strongly situated, resisted all the efforts of Abbas; but was at last taken, by the assistance of the Curds, whom he gained over by promising to share the plunder of the place with them. But instead of this he formed a design to cut them all off at once; fearing that they might, at another time, do the Turks a service of the same nature that they had done to him just now. For this reason he invited their chiefs to dine with him; and having brought them to a tent, the entrance to which had several turnings, he stationed on the inside two executioners, who cut off the heads of the guests as soon as they entered.

After this Shah Abbas considerably enlarged his dominions, and repelled two dangerous invasions of the Turks. He attempted also to promote commerce, and civilize his subjects; but stained all his great actions by his abominable cruelties, which he practised on

every one who gave him the least cause of offence; nay frequently without any cause at all. He took the isle of Ormus from the Portuguese, who had kept it since 1507, by the assistance of some English ships, in 1622; and died six years after, aged 70.

The princes who succeeded Shah Abbas the Great were remarkable only for their cruelties and debaucheries, which occasioned a revolution in 1716, when the Shah Hussien was dethroned by the Afghans, a people inhabiting the country between Persia and India; who, being oppressed by the ministers, revolted, under the conduct of one Mereweis. The princes of the Afghan race continued to enjoy the sovereignty for no more than 16 years, when Ashraff, the reigning Shah, was dethroned by one of his officers. On this Thamasp, otherwise called prince Thamas, the only survivor of Abbas, assembling an army, invited into his service Nadir Khan, who had obtained great reputation for his valour and conduct. He was the son of a Persian nobleman, on the frontiers of Usbeck Tartary; and his uncle, who was his guardian, keeping him out of possession of the castle and estate, which was his inheritance, he took to robbing the caravans; and having increased his followers to upwards of 5000 men, became the terror of that part of the country, and especially of his uncle, who had seized his estate. His uncle therefore resolved to make his peace with him; and, with this view invited him to the castle, where he entertained him in a splendid manner; but Nadir Khan ordered his throat to be cut next night, and all his people turned out of the castle. No sooner had Nadir Khan got the command of the Persian army than he attacked and defeated the usurper Esriff, put him to death, and recovered all the places the Turks and Russians had made themselves masters of during the rebellion; and then prince Thamas seemed to be established on the throne: but Nadir Khan, to whom Thamas had given the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, that is the slave of Thamas, thinking his services not sufficiently rewarded, and pretending that the king had a design against his life, or at least to set him aside, conspired against his sovereign, and put him to death, as is supposed; after which he usurped the throne, styling himself Shah Nadir, or king Nadir.

He afterwards laid siege to Candahor, of which a son of Mereweis had possessed himself. While he lay at this siege, the court of the great Mogul being distracted with factions, one of the parties invited Shah Nadir to come to their assistance, and betrayed the Mogul into his hands. He therefore marched to Dehli, the capital of India, and summoned all the viceroys and governors of provinces to attend him, and bring with them all the treasures they could raise; and those that did not bring as much as he expected he tortured and put to death. Having thus amassed the greatest treasure that ever prince was master of, he returned to Persia, giving the Mogul his liberty, on condition of his resigning the provinces on the west side of the Indus to the crown of Persia. He afterwards made a conquest of Usbeck Tartary, and plundered Bochara, the capital city. Then he marched against the Dagistan Tartars, but lost great part of his army on their mountains without fighting. He defeated the Turks in several engagements; but laying siege to Bagdad, was twice compelled to raise the siege. He proceeded to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar, hanged up the chief priests, put his own son to death, and was guilty of such cruelty that he was at length assassinated by his own relations, anno 1747. A contest upon this ensued between these relations for the crown, which rendered Persia a scene of the most horrible confusion for upwards of 40 years.

The reader will form some notion of the troubles of this unhappy country from the following series of pretenders to the throne between the death of Nadir and the accession of Kerim Khan. We give it from Francklin's Observations. 1. Adil Shah. 2. Ibraheem Shah. 3. Shah Rokh Shah. 4. Suleeman Shah. 5. Ismaeel Shah. 6. Azad Khan Afghan. 7. Hossun Khan Kejar. 8. Ali Merdan Khan Bukhteari. 9. Kerim Khan Zund.

"Their reigns, or, more properly, the length of time they respectively governed with their party, were as follows. *Adil Shah* nine months; *Ibraheem Shah* six months. *Shah Rokh Shah, after a variety of revolutions, at length regained the city of Meschid; he is* now alive (1787), and above 80 years of age, reigning in Khorassan, under the direction of his son, Nussir Ullah Meerza. Suleeman Shah and Ismaeel Shah, in about 40 days, were both cut off, almost as soon as they were elevated. Azad Khan Afghan, one of Kerim Khan's most formidable rivals and competitors, was subdued by him, brought prisoner to Shirauz, and died there a natural death. Hossun Khan Kejar, another of Kerim Khan's competitors, was besieging Shirauz, when his army suddenly mutinied and deserted him. The mutiny was attributed to their want of pay. A party sent by Kerim Khan took him prisoner. His head was instantly cut off and presented to Kerim Khan. His family were brought captives to Shirauz: they were well treated, and had their liberty given them soon after, under an obligation not to quit the city. Ali Merdan Khan was killed by a musket-shot, as he was walking on the ramparts of Maschid, encouraging his men. Kerim Khan Zund, by birth a Curdistan, was a most favourite officer of Nadir Shah, and, at the time of his death, was in the southern provinces. Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means at last, after various encounters, with doubtful success, completely to subdue all his rivals, and finally to establish himself as ruler of all Persia. He was in power about 30 years; the latter part of which he governed Persia under the appellation of vakeel, or regent, for he never would receive the title of Shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his residence, in gratitude for the assistance he had received from its inhabitants and those of the southern provinces. He died in the year 1779, regretted by all his subjects, who esteemed and honoured him as the glory of Persia."

"When the death of Kerim Khan was announced in the city, much confusion arose; 22 of the principal officers of the army, men of rank and family, took possession of the ark or citadel, with a resolution to acknowledge Abul Futtah Khan, the eldest son of the late Vakeel, as their sovereign, and to defend him against all other pretenders; whereupon Zikea Khan, a relation of the late Vakeel, by the mother's side, who was possessed of immense wealth, enlisted a great part of the army into his pay, by giving them very considerable bounties. Zikea Khan was of the tribe of Zund or the Lackéries; a man remarkably proud, cruel, and unrelenting. Having assembled a large body of troops, he immediately marched them to the citadel, and laid close siege to it for the space of three days; at the expiration of which, finding he could not take it by force, he had recourse to treachery. To each of the principal khans he sent a written paper, by which he swore, upon the Koran, that, if they would come out and submit to him, not a hair of their heads should be touched, and that they should have their effects secured to them. Upon this a consultation was held by them; and it appearing that they could not subsist many days

longer, they agreed to surrender themselves, firmly relying on the promises that had been made them. Zikea Khan in the mean time gave private orders for the khans to be seized, and brought separately before him as they came out of the citadel. His orders were strictly obeyed; and these deluded men were all massacred in his presence; he was seated the whole time, feasting his eyes on the horrid spectacle."

"Zikea Khan's tyranny became soon intolerable, that he was cut off by his own body guard, when Abul Futtah Khan, who was at that time in the camp, was proclaimed king, by the unanimous voice of the troops, whom he immediately led back to Shirauz. On his arrival he was acknowledged as sovereign by all ranks of people, and took quiet possession of the government."

"Mahomed Sadick Khan, only brother of the late Kerim Khan, who had, during that prince's life, filled the high office of beglerbeg of Fars, and had been appointed guardian of his son, Abul Futtah Khan, was, at that period, governor of the city of Bussora, which had been taken by the Persians, previous to the vakeel's death. Upon hearing the news of his brother's decease, he became ambitious of reigning alone, and, from that instant, formed schemes for the destruction of his nephew; but as it was necessary for him to be on the spot, for the advancement of his views, he determined to withdraw the Persian garrison from Bussora, who were all devoted to his interest; accordingly he evacuated that place, and marched immediately for Shirauz."

"The news of Sadick Khan's approach threw the inhabitants of Shirauz into the greatest consternation: their minds were variously agitated on the occasion; some, from his known public character, expected he would honestly fulfil the commands of his deceased brother; others, who had been witnesses to the confusion of former times on similar occasions, rightly imagined that he would set up for himself; and, indeed, this proved to be the case: for, having entered Shirauz a very few days after, he caused Abul Futtah Khan to be seized, deprived of sight, and put into close confinement."

"After this event Sadick Khan openly assumed the government. As soon as the intelligence reached Ali Murad Khan, who was at Ispahan, that lord instantly rebelled; deeming himself to have an equal right to the government with Sadick Khan, as in fact he had, he could ill brook the thought of being obedient to him, and openly declared himself a competitor for the empire. Persia was, by this means, again involved in all the horrors of a civil war. Ali Murad Khan indeed took possession of Shirauz, assumed the government, and gave to the empire the flattering prospect of being settled under the government of one man; but this prospect was soon obscured by the power and credit acquired by Akau Mahomed Khan."

On the night following Kerim Khan's death, this man found means to make his escape from Shirauz, and fled to the northward; where, collecting some troops, he soon made himself master of Mazanderan and Ghilan, and was proclaimed nearly about the time that Ali Murad Khan had taken Shirauz. "It is remarkable (says our author), that, from his first entering into competition for the government, he has been successful in every battle which he has fought. He is an eunuch, having been made so whilst an infant, by the command of Nadir Shah, but possesses great personal bravery."

Ali Murad Khan, hearing of the success of Akau Mahomed Khan, determined to go

against him; but as he was previously proceeding to Ispahan to suppress a rebellion, he fell suddenly from his horse and expired on the spot.

"At this period Jaafar Khan, the eldest and only surviving son of Sadick Khan, was governor of Khums; he deemed this a favourable opportunity to assist his pretensions to the government, and immediately marched, with what few troops he had, to Ispahan: soon after his arrival he was joined by the greater part of the malcontents, who were then in arms. In this situation he remained some time; but Akau Mahomed Khan coming down upon him with his army, he was obliged to risk his fate in a battle; and, being defeated, fled, with the small remains of his troops, taking the road to Shirauz. Soon after, finding himself strengthened by an increase of his army, he determined to venture a second engagement with his opponent, Akau Mahomed Khan; and, for this purpose, marched with his army towards Ispahan. The two armies met near Yezdekhast, when a battle ensued, and Akau Mahomed Khan's superior fortune again prevailing, Jaafar Khan was defeated, and retired to Shirauz, which he quitted on the 25th of June, 1787, and shortly after marched his army to the northward, but returned in October, without having effected any thing."

Such was the state of Persia in 1788. Mr. Francklin, from whose excellent observations on a tour made in the year 1786-7 these particulars are mostly extracted, says, "That Jaafar Khan is the most likely, in case of success against his opponent, to restore the country to a happy and reputable state; but it will require a long space of time to recover it from the calamities into which the different revolutions have brought it:---a country, if an oriental metaphor may be allowed, once blooming as the garden of Eden, fair and flourishing to the eye;---now, sad reverse! despoiled and leafless by the cruel ravages of war and desolating contention."

The invasion of Hindostan in 1739 produced many important effects. Since the arrival of Nadir about 200,000 people had been destroyed, and goods and treasure carried off to the amount of 125,000,000*l.* sterling. Mohammed had ceded to the usurper all the provinces of Hindostan situated to the west of the Indus. His departure left the Nizam in possession of all the remaining power in the empire, which he instantly made use of to establish himself in the sovereignty of the Deccan. The province of Bengal had already become independent, under Aliverdy Cawn, in the year 1738; and not long after it was invaded by a vast army of Mahrattas, under sanction of the emperor's name; who, being unable to satisfy them in the arrears of tribute he had been obliged to consent to pay, sent them into Bengal to collect for themselves. About the same time, the Rohillas, a tribe from the mountains which lie between India and Persia, erected an independent state on the east of the Ganges, within 80 miles of Dehli.

The total dissolution of the empire seemed now to be fast approaching. In the confusion which took place after the murder of Nadir Shah, Abdallah, one of his generals, seized upon the eastern part of Persia and the adjoining provinces of India, which had been ceded to Nadir by Mohammed Shah; which he formed into a kingdom, still known by the name of Candahar or Abdalli.

This year Mohammed Shah died, after a reign of 29 years; which, considering the fate of his immediate predecessors, and the anarchy universally prevalent throughout

Hindostan, must be accounted very wonderful. He was succeeded by his son Ahmed Shah; during whose reign, which lasted about six years, the total division of the remainder of the empire took place. Nothing now remained to the family of Tamerlane but a small tract of territory round the city of Dehli, now no longer a capital, and exposed to the repeated depredations of invaders, with consequent massacres and famines. The last army which could with propriety be termed imperial was defeated by the Rohillas in 1749; by which their independence was fully established in the eastern parts of the province of Dehli. The Jants or Jats, a Hindoo tribe, established themselves in the province of Agra; the Deccan and Bengal were seized upon by their viceroys, Nizam and Aliverdy. Oude was seized on by Seifdar Jang (father of the late Sujah Dowlah); Allahabad by Mohammed Kooli; Maliva was divided between the Poonah Mahrattas and several native princes and Zemindars; Agimere reverted of course to its antient lords, the Rajpoot; and the Mahrattas, in addition to their proper share of Maliva, possessed the greatest part of Guzerat, Berar, and Orissa, besides their antient dominions in the Deccan. These people were now become so powerful that they were alternately courted and employed by the contending parties, like the Swiss in Europe; with this difference, that the Swiss are paid by those who employ them, whereas the Mahrattas always take care to pay themselves. Abdalla, having established his empire in the manner above related, entered Lahore and Moultan, or the Penjab, with a view to conquest. "The whole country of Hindostan was in commotion (says major Rennel) from one entrance to the other, each party fearing the machinations or attacks of the other; so that all regular government was at an end, and villany was practised in every form. Perhaps in the annals of the world it has seldom happened that the bonds of government were so suddenly dissolved over a portion of country containing at least 60,000,000 of inhabitants."

India is divided into the provinces of Madura, Tanjour, Carnate, Golconda, Orixa, Deccan, Guzerat, Bengal, Naugracut, Jesuat, Patna, Necbal, Gaur, Rohillas, Surat, Jesselmere, Sinda, Bucknor, Moultan, Haicam, Cabul, Candeish, Berar, Chitore, Ratipore, Narvar, Gualeor, Agra, Dehli, Lahore, Cashmire, Jengapore, and Ajmere.

These provinces are shared between the Mogul, whose power is nearly annihilated, the Nizam of Deccan, the east India company, the Seiks, the Mahrattas, and a number of independant rajahs and nabobs.

The East India company is possessed of Bombay, Madrass, the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and various other territories. A variety of opinions have been entertained as to the wisdom and propriety of their government; but we may observe with pleasure that an increasing liberality is visible in their conduct, and there is some reason to hope that our Indian settlements will ultimately prove the means of diffusing the light of Christianity over a large part of the continent of Asia. We shall conclude this chapter with an account of the Seiks and Mahrattas, two of the most singular races of men that inhabit Hindostan.

The Seiks, as has already been mentioned, worship one God; but without image or believing in any mediator. They eat all kinds of meat, except beef; sparing the black cattle, in all probability, on account of their utility. Pork is very generally eaten, probably on account of its being forbidden by the Mahometans. They are commonly dressed in blue, a colour reckoned unlucky by the Hindoos. Their dress consists of blue trowsers,

of cotton, a sort of plaid, generally checquered with blue, and thrown over the right shoulder, with a blue turban. Their government is lodged in an assembly of different chiefs, but who, as individuals, are independent of one another, and have separate territories. They meet annually or oftener, if occasion requires, at a place called Antherser, which is held in a kind of religious veneration; where there is a large tank, lined with granite, and surrounded with buildings, and beautifully ornamented. Their force is very considerable, amounting to no fewer than 200,000 cavalry. However they can seldom be brought to act in concert, unless the whole nation be threatened with some imminent danger. They are a strong, hardy race of men, and capable of bearing much fatigue, and so expert in war that of late almost all the neighbouring countries have been laid under contribution by them, several petty chiefs having consented to pay them a small annual tribute, in order to avoid their incursions. When in the field none but the principal officers have tents, and those extremely small, so that they may be struck and tansported with the greater quickness and facility. In cold weather the soldiers wrap themselves during the night in a coarse blanket, which, in the time of marching, is folded and carried on their horse. Their country is well cultivated, populous, and abounding in cattle, particularly horses, which are reckoned the best in all Hindostan. This may probably be owing to the studs which were formerly established in the different places of the province of Lahore, on account of the Mogul himself. Stallions were sent thither from Persia and Arabia; and there was a fixed order to send to the studs in Lahore all such Arabian and Persian horses, as, by any accident, should be unfit for mounting.

Notwithstanding their deism, the Seiks are said to have a superstitious veneration for their sword; insomuch that before one of them will eat with a person of another religion, he draws his sword, and, passing it over the victuals, repeats some words of prayer, after which he will freely partake of them. Contrary to the practice of all the other Hindoos, they dislike the smoking of tobacco; but many of them smoke and chew bang, which sometimes produces a degree of intoxication.

The Mahratta horsemen are dressed in a quilted jacket, of cotton, which is supposed to be one of the best defences against a sword that can easily be contrived of equal lightness; but the heat of the climate frequently renders it necessary to be taken off. The rest of their dress consists of a pair of trowsers, and a kind of broad turban, which descends low enough to cover the neck and shoulders. In cases of emergency the horsemen carry provision both for themselves and their horses, in a small bag, tied upon the saddle; the food of the rider consists only of a few small cakes, with a little flour or rice, and some salt and spices; the horse is fed with a kind of pease, named gram, or with balls made of the flour of these pease, mixed with butter, prepared after a certain manner, and named ghee, together with some garlic and hot spices. These balls are given by way of cordial, and have the property of invigorating the animal after extraordinary fatigue. Sometimes it is said that they add a small quantity of bang. The Mahratta cavalry seldom make any use of tents; even the officers frequently have no other accommodation than a small carpet to sit and lie on, and a single camel is able to carry the whole baggage of the general. The officers, however, are generally well mounted, and have spare horses in the field.

All the subjects and vassals of the Mahratta princes are generally ready to follow them,

into the field, and, in any case in which the honour or interest of the nation appears to be concerned, they generally unite in the common cause. Before they invade any country, the general is at great pains to inform himself of the nature and situation of it; and they have now made incursions into so many different parts of Hindostan, that there are but few countries there with which they are not very well acquainted. Their great sobriety and the fatigue they are capable of undergoing render them very dangerous enemies. In all their expeditions the soldier first provides for his horse, and then goes to his own meal; after which he lies down contented, by the side of the animal, and is ready to mount him at the first sound of the Nagar or great drum. They have their horses under the most excellent management; and, by perpetually caressing and conversing with them, the animals acquire a degree of docility and sagacity unknown in other countries. When on an expedition, the horses are accustomed to eat grass, pulled up by the roots, which is said to be very nutritive, and to be destitute of that purgative quality which belongs to the blade alone. When they make an invasion the devastation is terrible; the cattle are driven off, the harvest destroyed, and the villages burned, and every human creature massacred who comes in their way. Notwithstanding this barbarity in time of war, however, they are very humane in time of peace, living in great harmony among themselves, and being always ready to entertain and assist strangers. Many of the cruelties they commit may be justly reckoned the effects of retaliation for other cruelties exercised upon them by their adversaries. Thus, in 1771, after having given Hyder Ally a great defeat, they cut off the ears and noses of a whole regiment of prisoners, and in that condition sent them back to their commander, in return for his having done the same to a few prisoners he had taken some time before.

VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK VIII.

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

A GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

TURKEY is bounded on the north by Hungary, Transylvania, Poland, and Russia; on the east by Persia; on the south by the deserts of Arabia, Nubia, and Zaarah; and on the west by Barbary, the Mediterranean, and the gulph of Venice. Turkey in Europe comprehends part of Croatia and Dalmatia, and the provinces of Bosnia, Servia, Bulgaria, Walachia, Moldavia, Albania, Greece, Morea, the islands of the Archipelago, Macedonia, and Roumilii. Asiatic Turkey is divided from European by the Archipelago, the sea of Marmora, and the Black sea, and united to Turkey in Africa by the Isthmus of Suez, between Arabia and Egypt. It contains Anadolia, Carmania, Armenia, Curdistan, Irak Arabi, Algezira, Syria, and Palestine. The sultan possesses in Africa Egypt and Nubia, and the nominal sovereignty of some of the piratical states of Barbary.

Croatia, Bosnia, Servia, Bulgaria, Walachia, and Moldavia are all of them watered by the Danube, and principally inhabited by ignorant Christians, of the Greek church, who use different dialects of the Schlavonian language. Croatia is naturally fertile in corn and wine, but, being a frontier province is little cultivated. Bosnia is barren, but valuable for mines of silver: it produces falcons, which are held in great esteem. Walachia abounds in good horses and cattle; and there are mines of several kinds. The soil is so fertile that it is capable of producing every thing; and there are good pastures, with wine, oil, and all manner of European fruits. The Moldavians are governed by a native prince, appointed by the Turks, who oblige them to pay tribute and maintain a large body of cavalry.

Dalmatia is a healthful and fruitful province, abounding in corn, wine, and oil. The capital of Turkish Dalmatia is Herzegorina. The inhabitants of Albania are strong, large, courageous, and good horsemen; but are said to be of a thievish disposition: the grand seignior procures excellent soldiers from hence, particularly cavalry, known by the name of Arnauts. There are several large towns in this province, and the inhabitants are almost all Christians, of the Greek church, and descended from the antient Scythians. Formerly it was part of the kingdoms of Macedonia and Epirus. Their chief manufac-

ture in carpets. The principal places are Durazzo, Velona, Antivari, Scutari, Croya, Alessio, Dibra, Doleigno, and Albanapoli.

Modern Greece, in the most extensive sense, comprehends Macedonia; Albania, now called Arnaut; Epirus; Thessaly, now Jana; Achaia, now Livadia; the Peloponessus, now Morea; together with the islands on its coast and in the Archipelago. The continent of Greece is seated betwixt the 36° and 43° of north latitude; and between the 19° and 27° of longitude, east of London. On the north it is bounded by Bulgaria and Servia, from which it is divided by a ridge of Mountains; to the south by the Mediterranean sea; to the east by Romania and the Archipelago; and to the west by the Adriatic or gulph of Venice. Its length is said to be about 400 miles, and its utmost breadth about 350 miles. The air is extremely temperate and healthy; and the soil fruitful, though badly cultivated, yielding corn, wine, delicious fruits, and abounding with cattle, fowls, and venison. As to religion, Christianity was planted in Greece soon after the death of our Saviour, and flourished there for many ages in great purity; but since the Greeks became subject to the Turkish yoke, they have sunk into the most deplorable ignorance, in consequence of the slavery and thraldom under which they groan, and their religion is now greatly corrupted. It is indeed little better than a heap of ridiculous ceremonies and absurdities. The head of the Greek church, the patriarch of Constantinople, who is chosen by the neighbouring archbishops and metropolitans, and confirmed by the emperor or grand vizir. He is a person of great dignity, being the head and director of of the eastern church. The other patriarchs are those of Jerusalem, Antioch, and Alexandria. Mr. Tournefort tells us that the patriarchates are now generally set to sale, and bestowed upon those who are the highest bidders. The patriarchs, metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops, are always chosen from among the Caloyers or Greek monks. Before the patriarchs receive their patents and the caftan, which is a vest of linsey-woolsey, or some other stuff, presented by the grand seignior to ambassadors and other persons newly invested with some considerable dignity; they are obliged to make some large presents to the vizir, &c. The income of the patriarch of Constantinople is said to amount to no less than 120,000 guilders; of which he pays the one half, by way of an annual tribute, to the Ottoman Porte, adding 6000 guilders besides, as a present at the feast of Bairam. The next person to a bishop among the clergy is an archimandrite, who is the director of one or more convents, which are called mandren; then come the abbot, the arch-priest, the priest, the deacon, the under-deacon, the chanter, and the lecturer. The secular clergy are subjected to no rules, and never rise higher than high-priest; they are allowed to marry once, but it must be with a virgin, and before they are ordained; they have neither glebe nor tythes, but depend on the perquisites that arise from their office; and they seldom preach but in Lent. The Greeks have few nunneries, but a great many convents of monks, who are all priests, and, students excepted, obliged to follow some handicraft employment, and lead a very austere life. The Greeks deny the supremacy of the pope, and abhor the worship of images; but have a multitude of pictures of saints in their churches, whom they pray to as mediators. Their fasts are very severe. They believe also in the doctrine of transubstantiation, and that the Holy Ghost does not proceed from the Son. They admit not of purgatory, says Mr. Thevenot, but yet they allow a third place, where they say the blessed remain in expectation of the day

DRESS of the TURKS, with a VIEW of the GRAND SIGNIOR'S SERAGLIO.

of judgment. At mass they consecrate with bread, and communicate under both kinds, as well laics as priests, and as well women and children as men. When they carry the sacrament to the sick they do not prostrate nor expose it to be adored, neither do they carry it in procession, or have any particular feast in honour of it. Baptism is performed among them by plunging the whole body of the child thrice into water. Immediately after baptism they give it confirmation and the communion; and seven days after that it undergoes the ceremony of ablution.

As to the character of the modern Greeks, they are said to be very covetous, hypocritical, treacherous, very cruel, and at the same time revengeful to the highest decree, but very superstitious. They are so much despised by the Turks, that these do not even value a Greek who turns Mahometan. The Turks are very remarkable for their taciturnity, they never use unnecessary words; but the Greeks, on the contrary, are very talkative and lively. The Turks generally practise what their religion enjoins, but the Greeks do not, and their misery puts them upon a thousand mean shifts and scandalous practices, authorised by bad example, and perpetuated from father to son. The Greek women have fine features and beautiful complexions: their countenances still very much resemble those of the antient Greek statues.

The islands of the Archipelago are divided into the Cyclades, which lay in a group, and the Sporades, which are scattered. They are none of them very considerable, and are chiefly inhabited by Greeks. Southward of these is the large island of Candia, which, with every advantage of soil and climate, maintains about 300,000 inhabitants, but is capable of supporting a much greater number.

Roumilli is a fertile province, and produces also silver, lead, and alum. Its principal cities are Constantinople, Adrianople, and Gallipoli.

Constantinople is now called by the Turks Istampol, and by the Greeks Istampoli o. Stampoli. It is seated at the eastern extremity of Romania, on a small neck of land, which advances towards Natolia, from which it is separated by a channel, of a mile in breadth. The sea of Marmora washes its walls on the south, and a gulf of the channel of Constantinople does the same on the north. It is delightfully situated between the Black sea and the Archipelago, from whence it is supplied with all necessaries. The grand seignior's palace, called the Seraglio, is seated on the sea-side, and is surrounded with walls, flanked with towers, and separated from the city by canals. It is said the harbour will easily hold 1200 ships. The number of houses must needs be prodigious, since one fire has burnt down 50,000 in a day, without greatly changing the aspect of the city. However, in general, they are but mean, especially on the outside, where there are few or no windows; and the streets being narrow gives them a melancholy look. It is reckoned that there are 3770 streets, small and great; but they seldom or never clean; and the people are infested with the plague almost every year. The inhabitants are half Turks, two-thirds of the other half Christians, and the rest Jews. Here are a great number of antient monuments still remaining, and particularly the superb temple of Sophia, which is turned into a mosque, and far surpasses all the rest. The street called Adrianople is the largest and broadest in the city; and the bazars or bezesteins are the markets for selling all sorts of merchandise. Both the old and the new are pretty near each other; and are large square buildings, covered with domes, and supported by arches and

pilasters. The new is the best, and contains all sorts of goods, which are there exposed to sale. A market for slaves of both sexes is not far off; and the Jews are the principal merchants who bring them here to be sold. There are a great number of young girls brought from Hungary, Greece, Candia, Russia, Mingrelia, and Georgia, for the service of the Turks, who generally buy them for their seraglios. The great square, near the mosque of sultan Bajazet, is the place for public diversions, where the juggellers and mountebanks play a great variety of tricks. The circumference of this city is by some said to be 15 miles, and by Mr. Tournefourt 23 miles; to which, if we add the suburbs, it may be 34 miles in compass. The suburb called Pera is charmingly situated; and is the place where the ambassadors of England, France, Venice, and Holland, reside. This city is built in the form of a triangle; and, as the ground rises gradually, there is a view of the whole town from the sea; the public buildings, such as the palaces, the mosques, bagnios, and caravansaries for the entertainment of strangers, are many of them very magnificent.

Adrianople is about seven or eight miles in circumference, including the old city and some gardens. Its houses are low, mostly built of wood and clay, and some of brick, and the streets are exceedingly dirty. The walls and towers are, in a great measure, fallen to decay. However there is a beautiful bazar, a mile long, called Ali Bassa. It is a vast arched building, with six gates, and 365 well furnished shops, kept by Turks, Armenians, and Jews, who pay five crowns a month for each shop. The number of inhabitants of all nations and religions may be about 100,000; but it is dear living here, because the provisions are brought from distant places. The air is wholesome, and the country very pleasant in the summer time, on account of the river and streams that run near and about the city; the chief of which is the Mariza. They promote and preserve the verdure of the gardens, meadows, and fields, for a considerable part of the year. In the winter there is plenty of game. Near the principal bazar there is another, about a mile in length, covered with boards, with holes on each side to let in the light. It is full of good shops, which contain all kinds of commodities. Sultan Selim's mosque stands on the side of a hill, in the midst of the city; and hence this magnificent structure may be seen on all sides. Every thing made of gold and silver, jewels, pistols, scymetars, &c. are sold in another part of the city, called by travellers the bezistein, though it differs little from a bazar. It contains about 200 shops, and is covered like the former; but the covering is supported by two rows of large pillars. The grand vizier's palace is nothing more than a convenient house, after the Turkish manner of building; the emperor's seraglio is a regular structure, in a plain near the river Tungia. It is two miles in compass, and has seven gates besides those of the gardens, which are several miles in circumference. The city is governed by a mullah cadi, who has an absolute authority both in civil and criminal matters. In the time of the plague or war the grand seignior sometimes resides here.

Gallipoli is seated at the mouth of the Marmura, with a good harbour and a bishop's see. It contains about 10,000 Turks, 3500 Greeks, besides a great number of Jews. The bezar or bezestein is a handsome structure, with domes covered with lead. It is an open place, and has no other defence than a paltry square castle. The houses of the Greeks and Jews have doors not above three feet and a half high, to prevent the Turks riding into their houses.

Anadolia is a large peninsula, which was denominated by the antients Asia Minor. Its capital is Smyrna, which is situated 183 miles from Constantinople. The town extends along the shore about half a mile, on a gentle declivity; the houses of the English, French, and Dutch consuls are handsome structures; these, with most of those occupied by the Christian merchants, are washed on one side by the sea, form a street, called Frank street, from its being solely inhabited by European Christians. In the year 1763 the whole of this quarter was consumed by fire: the loss sustained in this calamity by merchandize was estimated at 1,500,000 Turkish dollars, or near 200,000*l.* sterling. The port is one of the finest of the Levant, it being able to contain the largest fleet, and indeed there are seldom in it fewer than 100 ships of different nations.

A castle stands at its entrance, and commands all the shipping which sail in or out. There is likewise an old ruinous castle, near a mile in circumference, which stands in the upper part of the city, and, according to tradition, was built by the empress Helena; and near it is an antient structure, said to be the remains of a palace, where the Greek council was held when Smyrna was the metropolis of Asia Minor. They also show the ruins of an amphitheatre, where, it is said, St. Polycarp, the first bishop, fought with lions.

The city is about four miles in circumference, and nearly of a triangular form; but the side next the mountain is much longer than the other sides. The houses are low, and mostly built with clay-walls, on account of the earthquakes, to which the country is subject; but the caravansaries and some other of the public buildings have an air of magnificence. The streets are wide, and almost a continued bazar, in which a great part of the merchandize of Europe and Asia is exposed to sale, with plenty of provisions; though these are not so cheap as in many other parts of Turkey, on account of the populousness of the place, and the great resort of foreigners. It is said to contain 15,000 Turks, 10,000 Greeks, 1800 Jews, 200 Armenians, and 200 Franks. The Turks have 19 mosques; two churches belong to the Greeks, one to the Armenians, and the Jews have eight synagogues; the Romanists have three convents. There is also one of the fathers Della Terra Santa. Here resides an archbishop of the Greek church; a Latin bishop, who has a salary from Rome, with the title of bishop of Smyrna in partibus infidelium; and the English and Dutch factories have each their chaplain.

The walks about the town are extremely pleasant, particularly on the west side of Frank street, where there are several little groves of orange and lemon trees, which, being always clothed with leaves, blossoms, and fruit, regale several of the senses at the same time. The vines which cover the little hills about Smyrna afford both a delightful prospect and plenty of grapes, of which good wine is made. These hills are agreeably interspersed with fertile plains, little forests of olives and other fruit-trees, and many pleasure-houses, to which the Franks usually retire during the summer. In the neighbourhood of Smyrna is great plenty of game and wild-fowl, and particular deer and wild hogs: the sea also abounds with a variety of good fish. The European Christians are here allowed all imaginable liberties, and usually clothe themselves after the European manner.

The chief commerce in this city consists in raw silk, silk stuffs, grograms, and cotton-yarn.

However the unhealthfulness of the situation, and more especially the frequent earth-

quakes, from which it is said they are scarcely ever free for two years together, and which, they say, have been felt for 40 days successively, are an abatement of the pleasure that might otherwise be enjoyed here. A very dreadful one happened in June, 1688, which overthrew a great number of the houses; and the rock opening where the castle stood, swallowed it up, and no less than 5000 persons perished on this occasion.

In the year 1758 so desolating a plague raged here that scarcely a sufficient number of the inhabitants survived to gather in the fruits of the earth. In the year 1772 three-fourth parts of the city were consumed by fire; and six years after it was visited by the most dreadful earthquakes, which continued from the 25th of June to the 5th of July; by which successive calamities the city has been so much reduced that its former consequence is never likely to be restored.

The province of Carmonia corresponds nearly with the antient Cicilia, and is bounded by Anadolia, Armenia, and Syria.

Armenia is divided into the Great and Small. Great Armenia comprehends what is now called Turcomania. It has Georgia on the north, from which it is seperated by high mountains; the river Euphrates on the west; Diarbeker, Curdistan, and Aderbijan on the south; and Shirvan on the east. The chief towns in that part of Armenia belonging to Turkey are Arzum, the capital, near the springs of the Euphrates, a large city, and a great thoroughfare for the caravans between Turkey and Persia; Kara, a strong city, head of the government of the same name; Bayazid, a republic of Hurds, near mount Ararat; Baha, another republic of the same; and Van or Wan, on the lake Van, the head of a government of the same name; with other towns of less note. That part of Armenia subject to Persia is chiefly contained in the province of Aran, in which are several fine towns; as Erivan or Rivan, the capital of the whole; Ganjals, one of the finest cities in Persia, in the north side of the province, near the Kur; Kapan, on the south side, near the Aras; besides Nakchivan, Astabad, Julsa, Ordabad, Baylakan or Pilkan, on the Aras; Berdah and Shilkah, on the Kur.

The country in general is full of mountains and valleys, lakes and rivers, particularly the country about the three churches, near Erivan, is admirably fine, being full of rivulets, which render it extremely fruitful. Besides great quantities of all sorts of grain, here are fields of prodigious extent covered with tobacco, but it is not a native of the place, though supposed by some to be the terrestial paradise; for it all came originally from America. The rest of the country produces rice, cotton, flax, melons, and grapes; in short there is nothing wanting but olives; which is by some thought to prove that the ark could not rest on mount Ararat, because the dove brought an olive branch in her mouth, and this tree never leaves a place where it once grew. It seems, however, to have been otherwise antiently; for Strabo tells us that the olive grew in Gegarene, a province of Armenia. They get oil to burn from the ricinus, and use linseed oil in the kitchen. The water-melons are as cool as ice in the hottest day, and melt in the mouth; the best are produced in the salt-lands, near the three churches and the river. After rain the sea salt lies in crystals upon the fields, and even crackles under the feet. About ten miles from the three churches, in the road to Teflis, there are pits or quarries of fossile salt, which yield enough to supply all Persia without being exhausted; they cut it into large

pieces like stone, and each buffalo carries two of them; the mountain from whence it is dug is nothing but a mass of salt, which appears like a rock of silver when the sun shines on the places not covered with earth.

This country has been remarkable for its extreme cold from the remotest antiquity; sir John Chardin tells us that he found ice in the rivulets, in the morning, even in the month of July. In many places also, if they had not the convenience of watering their grounds, they would be almost entirely barren.

The Armenians are an honest, civil, and polite people; scarce troubling themselves about any thing else but trade, which they carry on in most parts of the world, by which means they have spread themselves over the east and also a great part of Europe; and wherever they come commerce is carried on with great spirit and advantage.

The religion of the Armenians is the Christian, of the Eutychian sect; that is, they own but one nature in Jesus Christ. They have a high esteem for a book they call the Little Gospel, which treats of the infancy of Jesus.

The Armenian clergy consists of patriarchs, archbishops, doctors, secular priests, and monks: the secular priests are not allowed to marry a second time, and therefore they take care to choose young healthy wives: they maintain themselves and families by following some occupation, insomuch that they have hardly time to perform their ecclesiastical functions: they lie in the churches on the vigils of those days they are obliged to officiate.

The Armenian monks are of the order of St. Basil, and every Wednesday and Friday they eat neither fish, nor eggs, nor oil, nor any thing made of milk; and during Lent they live upon nothing but roots: they are allowed wine only on the Saturday in the Holy Week, and meat on the Easter Sunday. Besides the great Lent they have four others, of eight days each, which are instituted to prepare for the four great festivals, of the Nativity, the Ascension, the Annunciation, and of St. George, in which times they must not so much as speak of eggs, fish, oil, or butter.

The Armenians have seven sacraments, baptism, confirmation, penance, the eucharist, extreme unction, orders, and matrimony. In baptism they plunge the child three times into the water, and the same forms of words that is used with us is repeated every time; the priest then puts a small cord made with silk and cotton on the neck of the infant, and anoints his forehead, chin, stomach, ears, pits, hands, and feet, making the sign of the cross on each part. When the child is baptised he is carried home by the godfather, with the sound of drums and trumpets. The women do not go to church till forty days after their delivery, and they observe many ridiculous customs.

At the communion, to which infants of two or three months old are admitted, the priests give a piece of the consecrated host, soaked in the consecrated wine. The elements are covered with a great veil, and placed in a cupboard, near the altar, on the side of the gospels. When the priest takes the chalice and patin he is followed by his deacons and subdeacons, with flambeaux and plates of copper, furnished with bells: in this manner, with a censer before him, he goes in procession round the sanctuary; he then rests them on the altar, pronounces the words of consecration, and turns himself to the pupils, who fall down, kiss the earth, and beat their breasts: then, after taking it himself, he distributes the host, soaked in wine, to the people.

The Armenians seem to place the chief part of their religion in fastings and abstinences; and among the clergy the higher the degree the lower they must live; insomuch that it is said the archbishops live on nothing but pulse. They consecrate holy water but once a-year; at which time every one fills a pot, and carries it home, which brings in a considerable revenue to the church.

Curdistan is a country of Asia, seated between the Turkish empire and Persia, lying along the eastern coast of the river Tigris, and comprehends great part of the antient Assyria. Its inhabitants are denominated Curds, and will be described in the progress of this chapter.

The capital of Irak Arabi is Bagdad. This city is large and populous, and the advantage of the Tigris is so considerable with regard to commerce, that although the climate is excessively hot, and, in other respects, far from being agreeable; yet the number of its inhabitants is computed at 300,000; but before the plague broke out there they were supposed to be four times that number. It is governed by a bashaw, whose authority extends as far as Curdistan. The revenues would be immense was the government mild; but instead thereof, oppression rules here with the most despotic sway. The bashaw is continually extorting money from the poor inhabitants, and none suffer more than the unfortunate Jews and Christians, many of whom are put to the most cruel tortures, in order to force their property from them. This series of tyranny and oppression has almost entirely driven them out of the city, in consequence of which the trade must suffer very considerably, they being generally the principal merchants in the place. In the months of June, July, and August the weather is so extremely hot as to oblige the inhabitants to live, for those months, in subterraneous apartments, which are arched over, to admit the freer circulation of the air. The houses are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over; many of the windows are made of elegant Venetian glass; the ceilings are mostly ornamented with a kind of chequered work, which has generally a noble appearance; most of the houses have a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a little plantation of orange-trees, &c. that has a very pleasing effect. The soil, which would produce not only every conveniency in life, but almost every luxury, is, through the natural indolence of the Turks, and the many faults in the government of the country, in a great measure uncultivated and neglected. The revenues were computed at 125 lacks of piasters, or 1,562,500*l.* sterling; but a quarter part of this is not collected, owing to the slothfulness of the Turks, who suffer the Arabs to plunder them of the remainder.

Algezira as well as the former is a fertile province, and was antiently denominated Mesopotamia. It is frequently called Diarbekir, all which names are of the same signification, and refer its situation between the rivers.

Before we proceed to describe Syria, it will not be improper to notice Cyprus. The air in this island is, for the most part, very unwholesome, on account of the many fens and marshes with which the country abounds. The soil is an excellent fertile clay; and would produce all the necessaries of life in abundance if properly cultivated. There are but few springs or rivers in this island, so that, when the rains do not fall plentifully at the usual seasons, the inhabitants are much distressed by the scarcity of water. By reason of the uncultivated state of the country, they are also greatly infested with poisonous reptiles of various kinds. The people are extremely ignorant and lascivious, as indeed

they are remarked to have been from the remotest antiquity. The exports of the island are silks, oil, cotton, wine, salt, and turpentine: the imports are French and Venetian broad cloths, and sometimes a few bales of English manufacture, cutlery wares, sugar, tin, lead, &c.

The ensuing description of Syria, Palestine, and Egypt is principally taken from the travels of De Volney; while, therefore, the reader derives information and pleasure from his accurate account of those provinces, let him be guarded against every improper sentiment, which our extracts, though made with care, may possibly contain.

If we examine a map of Syria we may observe that this country is, in some measure, only a chain of mountains, which distribute themselves, in various directions, from one leading branch; and such, in fact, is the appearance it presents whether we approach it from the side of the sea or by the immense plains of the desert. We first discover, at a great distance, a clouded ridge, which runs north and south as far as the sight extends; and, as we advance, distinguish the summits of mountains, which, sometimes detached and sometimes united in the chains, uniformly terminate in one principal line, which overtops them all; we may follow this line, without interruption, from its entry by the north quite into Arabia. It first runs close to the sea, between Alexandretta and the Orontes, and after opening a passage to that river, continues its course to the southward, quitting, for a short distance, the shore, and, in a chain of continued summits, stretches as far as the source of the Jordan, where it separates into two branches, to enclose, as it were in a bason, this river and its three lakes. In its course it detaches from this line, as from a main trunk, an infinity of ramifications, some of which lose themselves in the desert, where they form various enclosed hollows, such as those of Damascus and Hauran; while others advance toward the sea, where they frequently end in steep declivities, as at Carmel, Nakoura, Cape Blanco, and in almost the whole country, between Barout and Tripoli, of Syria; but in general they terminate gently in plains, such as those of Antioch, Tripoli, Tyre, and Acre.

These mountains, as they vary their levels and situations, are also greatly changed in their form and appearance. Between Alexandretta and the Orontes, the firs, larches, oaks, box-trees, laurels, yews, and myrtles, with which they abound, give them an air of liveliness, which delights the traveller, wearied with the melancholy nakedness of the isle of Cyprus. On some declivities he even meets with cottages environed with fig-trees and vineyards; and the sight of these repays the fatigue he has endured on a road, which, by rugged paths, leads him from the bottom of valleys to the tops of hills, and from the tops of hills to the bottoms of valleys. The inferior branches, which extend to the northward of Aleppo, on the contrary present nothing but bare rocks, without verdure or earth. To the south of Antioch and on the sea-coast the hill-sides are proper for the culivation of tobacco, olives, and vines; but on the side of the desert the summits and declivities of this chain are almost one continued series of white rocks. Towards Lebanon the mountains are lofty, but are covered in many places with as much earth as fits them for cultivation by industry and labour. There, amid the crags of the rocks, may be seen the no very magnificent remains of the boasted cedars, but a much greater number of firs, oaks, brambles, mulberry-trees, figs, and vines. As we leave the country of the Druses, the mountains are no longer so high nor so rugged, but become fitter for tillage. They rise

again to the south-east of mount Carmel, are covered with woods, and afford very pleasant prospects; but as we advance toward Judea they lose their verdure; their valleys grow narrower, they become dry and stony, and terminate at the Dead sea in a pile of desolate rocks, still higher and more rugged, presents a still more gloomy prospect, and announces afar off the entrance of the desert and the end of the habitable lands.

A view of the country will convince us that the most elevated point of all Syria is Lebanon, on the south-east of Tripoli. Scarcely do we depart from Larneca in Cyprus, which is thirty leagues distance, before we discover its summit, capped with clouds. This is also distinctly perceivable on the map from the course of the rivers. The Orontes, which flows from the mountains of Damascus, and loses itself below Antioch; the Kasmira, which, from the north of Balbek, takes its course towards Tyre; the Jordan, forced by the declivities towards the south, prove that this is the highest point. Next to Lebanon the most elevated part of the Marra country is mount Akkar, which becomes visible as soon as we leave Marra in the desert. It appears like an enormous flattened cone, and is constantly in view for two days journey. No one has yet had an opportunity to ascertain the height of these mountains by the barometer; but we may deduce it from another consideration. In winter their tops are entirely covered with snow from Alexandretta to Jerusalem, but after the month of March it melts, except on mount Lebanon, where, however, it does not remain the whole year, unless in the highest cavities, and toward the north east, where it is sheltered from the sea winds and the action of the sun. In such a situation, says De Volney, I saw it still remaining in 1784, at the very time I was almost suffocated with the heat in the valley of Balbek. Now, since it is well known that snow, in this latitude, requires an elevation of 15 or 1600 fathom, we may conclude that to be the height of Lebanon, and that it is, consequently much lower than the Alps or even the Pyrenees.

Lebanon, which gives its name to the whole extensive chain of the Kesraouan, and the country of the Douzes, presents us every where with majestic mountains. At every step meet with scenes in which nature displays either beauty or grandeur, sometimes singularity but always variety. When we land on the coast, the loftiness and steep ascent of this mountainous ridge, which seems to enclose the country, those gigantic masses which shoot into the clouds, inspire astonishment and respect. Should the curious traveller then climb these summits, which bounded his view, the immensity of space which he discovers becomes a fresh subject of admiration; but completely to enjoy this majectic scene he must ascend the very point of Lebanon or the Sannin. There, on every side, he will view an horizon without bounds; while, in clear weather, the sight is lost over the desert, which extends to the Persian gulf, and over the sea which bathes the coasts of Europe. He seems to command the whole world, while the wandering eye, now surveying the successive chains of mountains, transports the imagination in an instant from Antioch to Jerusalem; and now approaching the surrounding objects, observes the distant profundity of the coast, till the attention, at length fixed by distincter objects, more minutely examines the rocks, woods, torrents, hill-sides, villages, and towns; and the mind secretly exults at the diminution of things which before appeared so great. The spectator contemplates the valley, obscured by stormy clouds, with a novel delight, and smiles at hearing the thunder, which had so often burst over his head, growling under his feet;

while the threatening summits of the mountains are diminished till they appear only like the furrows of a ploughed field, or the steps of an amphitheatre; and the mind is flattered by an elevation above so many great objects, on which pride makes it look down with a secret satisfaction.

Syria unites different climates under the same sky, and collects within a narrow compass pleasures and productions which nature has elsewhere dispersed at great distances of times and places. With us, for instance, seasons are separated by months, there, we may say, they are only separated by hours. If in Saide or Tripoli we are incommoded by the heats of July, in six hours we are, in the neighbouring mountains, in the temperature of March; or, on the other hand, if chilled by the frosts of December at Besharrai, a day's journey brings us back to the coast, amid the flowers of May. The Arabian poets have therefore said that "the Sannin bears winter on his head, spring upon his shoulders, and autumn in his bosom, while summer lies sleeping at his feet." I have myself experienced, says De Volney, the truth of this figurative observation, during the eight months I resided at the monastery of Mar-Hanna, seven leagues from Bairout. At the end of February I left at Tripoli a variety of vegetables, which were in perfection, and many flowers in full bloom. On my arrival at Antoura I found the plants only beginning to shoot; and at Mar-Hanna every thing was covered with snow. It had not entirely left the Sannin till the end of April; and already, in the valley it overlooks, roses had begun to bud. The early figs were past at Bairout when they were first gathered with us, and the silk-worms were in cod before our mulberry-trees were half stripped.

To this advantage, which perpetuates enjoyments by their succession, Syria adds another, that of multiplying them by the variety of her productions. Were nature assisted by art, those of the most distant countries might be produced within the space of twenty leagues. At present, in spite of the barbarism of a government which is an enemy to all industry and improvement, we are astonished at the variety this province affords. Besides wheat, rye, barley, beans, and the cotton plant, which is cultivated every where, we find a multitude of useful and agreeable productions, appropriated to different situations. Palestine abounds in sesamum, from which oil is procured, and doura, as good as that of Egypt. Maize thrives in the light soil of Balbek, and even rice is cultivated with success on the borders of the marshy country Havula. They have lately begun to plant sugar-canes in the gardens of Saide and of Bairout, and they find them equal to those of the Delta. Indigo grows without cultivating on the banks of the Jordan, in the country of Bisan, and only requires care to make it of an excellent quality. The hill-sides of Latakia produce tobacco, which is the principal article of its commerce with Damietta and Cairo. This is now cultivated through all the mountains. As for trees, the olive trees of Province grow at Antioch and at Ramla to the height of the beech. The white mulberry-tree constitutes the wealth of the whole country of the Druzes, by the beautiful silks which are produced on it; while the vine, supported on poles, or winding round the oaks, supplies grapes, which afford red and white wines that might rival those of Bourdeaux. Before the ravages occasioned by the late troubles, there were, in the gardens of Yaffa, two plants of the Indian cotton-tree, which grew rapidly; nor has this town lost its lemons, its enormous citrons, or its water-lemons, which are preferable even to those of Broulos. Gaza produces dates, like Mecca, and pomegranates, like Algiers; Tripoli affords oranges equal to those

of Malta; Bairout figs, like those of Marseilles, and bananas not inferior to those of St Domingo; Aleppo enjoys the exclusive advantage of producing pistachios; and Damascus justly boasts of possessing all the fruits known in our provinces. Its stony soil suits equally the apples of Normandy, the plumbs of Touraine, and the peaches of Paris. Twenty sorts of apricots are reckoned there, the stone of one of which contains a kernel highly valued through all Turkey. In short, the cochineal plant, which grows on all that coast, contains perhaps that precious insect in as high perfection as it is found in Mexico and St. Domingo; and if we consider that the mountains of the Yemen, which produce such excellent coffee, are only a continuation of those of Syria, and their soil and climate are almost the same, we shall be induced to believe that Judea especially might easily cultivate this valuable production of Arabia. With these numerous advantages of climate and of soil, it is not astonishing that Syria should always have been esteemed a most delicious country, and that the Greeks and Romans ranked it among the most beautiful of their provinces, and even thought it not inferior to Egypt. In modern times also, a Pacha, who was acquainted with both these provinces, being asked to which he gave the preference, replied, "Egypt, without doubt, is a most beautiful farm, but Syria is a charming country-house."

The principal cities of Syria are Aleppo, Tripoli, Saide, Acre, Damascus, and Jerusalem.

Aleppo or Halab, the capital of the Pachalic and of all Syria, and the ordinary residence of the Pacha, is situated in the vast plain which extends from the Orontes to the Euphrates, and which, towards the south, terminates in the desert. It is built on eight hills or eminences, on the highest of which the castle is erected, and is supposed to be the antient Berœa. This mount is of a conic form, and seems, in a great measure, to be raised with the earth thrown up out of a deep, broad ditch which surrounds it. The suburbs to the north-north-east are next in height to this, and those to the west-south-west are much lower than the parts adjacent, and than any other part of the city. The houses are large and commodious, having terraces on their tops, and generally sky-lights, in form of a dome, to let the light into the rooms, which, from their loftiness, the gilding on the window shutters, cupboard doors, &c. have, at first entrance, a very grand and agreeable effect. They are all so equal in height that there are seldom any steps to ascend or descend in going from one house to another; while several large vaulted streets increase the facility of communication, by affording a passage to every part of the city free from the embarrassment of the open streets. They are carefully paved, have gutters, and a foot pavement on each side, and the middle of the street is laid with brick, the small end upwards, for the convenience of the horses. There is also a cleanliness observed here unknown to the other cities of Turkey, and which is not attended with the trouble of our scavengers, there being ass-drivers, who go about the city, and take up the rubbish and dust which each inhabitant is obliged to sweep together; and though the heat of the climate renders this labour more easy, the same heat obliges them to greater cleanliness, in order to preserve the salubrity of the air.

The mosques in Aleppo are numerous, and some few of them magnificent. Before each of them is an area, with a fountain in the middle, designed for ablutions before prayers; and behind some of the larger there are little gardens. There are many large

khans or caravansaries, consisting of a capacious square, on all sides of which are a number of rooms, built on a ground-floor, used occasionally for chambers, warehouses, or stables. Above-stairs there is a colonade or gallery, on every side in which are the doors of a number of small rooms, wherein the merchants, as well strangers as natives, transact most of their business.

The bazars or market-places are long, covered, narrow streets, on each side of which there are a great number of small shops, just sufficient to hold the tradesman and his goods, the buyer being obliged to stand without. Each separate branch of business has a particular bazar, which is locked up, as well as the streets, an hour and a half after sunset; but the locks are of wood, though the doors are cased with iron. The slaughter-houses are in the suburbs, open to the fields: the tanners have a khan to work in near the river: to the southward, in the suburbs, they burn lime; and a little beyond that there is a village where they make ropes and catgut. On the opposite side of the river, to the westward, there is a glass-house, where they make a coarse white glass, in the winter only; for the greatest part of this manufacture is brought from a village 35 miles westward.

The situation of Aleppo, beside the advantage of a rich and fruitful soil, possesses also that of a stream of fresh water, which never becomes dry. This rivulet, which is about as large as that of the Gobelins at Paris, or the New River near London, rises in the mountains of Aenteb, and terminates, six leagues below Aleppo, in a morass, full of wild boars and pelicans. Near Aleppo its banks, instead of the naked rocks which line them in the upper part of its course, are covered with a fertile earth, and laid out in gardens, or rather orchards, which, in a hot country, and especially in Turkey, cannot but be delightful. The city is in itself one of the most agreeable in Syria, and is, perhaps, the best built of any in Turkey. On whatever side it is approached its numerous minarets and domes present an agreeable prospect to the eye, fatigued by the continued sameness of the brown and parched plains. In the centre is an artificial mountain, surrounded by a dry ditch, on which is a ruinous fortress. From thence we have a fine prospect of the whole city, and, to the north, discover the snowy tops of the mountains of Bailom; and on the west those which separate the Orontes from the sea; while, to the south and east, the eye can discern as far as the Euphrates. In the time of Omar this castle stopped the progress of the Arabs for several months, and was at last taken by treachery; but at present would not be able to resist the feeblest assault. Its slight wall, low and without a battress, is in ruins; its little old towers are in no better condition; and it has not above four cannon fit for service, not excepting a culverine, nine feet long, taken from the Persians at the siege of Bassora. Three hundred and fifty janisaries, who should form the garrison, are busy in their shops, and the aga scarcely finds room in it to lodge his retinue. It is remarkable that this aga is named immediately by the Porte, which, ever suspicious, divides as much as possible the different offices. Within the walls of the castle is a well, which, by means of a subterraneous communication, derives its water from a spring a league and a quarter distant. In the environs of the city we find a number of large, square stones on the top of which is a turban of stone, which are so many tombs. There are many rising grounds around it, which, in case of a siege, would greatly facilitate the approaches of the assailants. Such, among others, is that on which the house of the Derviches

stands, and which commands the canal and the rivulet; Aleppo therefore cannot be esteemed a place of importance in war, though it be the key of Syria to the north; but considered as a commercial city it has a different appearance. It is the emporium of Armenia and the Diarbekar, sends caravans to Bagdad and into Persia, and communicates with the Persian gulph and India by Bassora, with Egypt and Mecca by Damascus, and with Europe by Skandaroon (Alexandretta) and Latakia. Commerce is there principally carried on by barter. The chief commodities are raw or spun cottons, clumsy linens, fabricated in the villages; silk stuffs, manufactured in the city; copper bourres (coarse cloths), like those of Rouen; goats' hair, brought from Natolia; the gall-nuts of Curdistan; the merchandize of India, such as shawls and muslins, and pistachio nuts, of the growth of the neighbourhood. The articles supplied by Europe are Languedoc cloths, cochineal, indigo, sugar, and some other groceries. The coffee of America, though prohibited, is introduced, and serves to mix with that of Moka. The French have at Aleppo a consul and seven counting-houses; the English and the Venetians two; and the merchants of Leghorn and Holland one. The emperor appointed a consul there in 1784 in the person of a rich Jew merchant, who shaved his beard to assume the uniform and the sword. Russia has also sent one very lately. Aleppo is not exceeded in extent by any city in Turkey, except Constantinople and Cairo, and perhaps Smyrna. The number of inhabitants has been computed at 200,000; but in these calculations certainty is impossible. However, if we observe that this city is not larger than Nantes or Marseilles, and that the houses consist only of one story, we shall, perhaps, not think it probable they exceed 100,000. The people of this city, both Turks and Christians, are, with reason, esteemed the most civilized in all Turkey; and the European merchants no where enjoy so much liberty or are treated with so much respect.

The air of Aleppo is very dry and piercing, but at the same time very salubrious for all who are not troubled with asthmatic complaints. The city, however, and the environs are subject to a singular endemial disorder, which is called the ringworm or pimple of Aleppo; it is, in fact, a pimple, which is at first inflammatory, and at length becomes an ulcer, of the size of the nail. The usual duration of this ulcer is one year; it commonly fixes on the face, and leaves a scar, which disfigures almost all the inhabitants. It is alleged that every stranger who resides there three months is attacked with it. Experience has taught that the best mode of treatment is to make use of no remedy. No reason is assigned for this malady: but M. Volney suspects it proceeds from the quality of the water, as it is likewise frequent in the neighbouring villages in some parts of the Diarbekir, and even in certain districts near Damascus, where the soil and the water have the same appearance. Of the Christian inhabitants the greater number are Greeks, next to them the Armenians, then the Syrians, and lastly the Maronites, each of whom have a church in the part of the city called Judida, in which quarter and the parts adjacent most of them reside. The common language is the vulgar Arabic, but the Turks of condition use the Turkish. Most of the Armenians can speak the Armenian, some few Syrians understand Syriac, and many of the Jews Hebrew; but scarce one of the Greeks understand a word of Greek. The people in general are of a middle stature and tolerably well proportioned, but they seem neither vigorous nor active. Both sexes are handsome when young; but the beard soon disfigures the men, and the women, as they come early to

maturity, also fade very soon; females are generally married from 14 to 18 years of age, and many under 14. The people of rank here are polite and affable, making allowances for that superiority which the Mahometan religion instructs its votaries to assume over all who hold a different faith. The bread is generally of wheat flour, made into thin cakes, but very ill prepared, and is generally eaten as soon as it comes out of the oven. The principal people have small loaves, of a finer flour, which are well fermented and baked. Besides there are a variety of biscuits, most of which are strewed on the top with some kind of seeds. The Europeans have very good bread, prepared and baked in the French manner. All the inhabitants, of both sexes, smoke tobacco to great excess; even the very servants have almost constantly a pipe in their mouths. Coaches or carriages are not used here; there persons of quality ride on horseback in the city, with a number of servants walking before them, according to their rank; ladies of the first distinction are even compelled to walk on foot through the city, or to any place at a moderate distance; in longer journeys they are carried by mules, in a kind of couch close covered up. There are a number of public bagnios in this city, which are used by people of all ranks, except those of the highest distinction, who commonly have baths and every other convenience in their own houses.

Damascus and Jerusalem are both of them very antient cities, and both of them derive their present support from popular superstition. The former, which has subsisted from the time of Abraham, is the rendezvous of such Moslems as visit Mecca; and the latter is the resort of catholic and Greek devotees, who are desirous of beholding the sepulchre.

Among the different inhabitants of Syria some are dispersed indifferently over every part of the country, others confine themselves to particular spots, which it will be necessary to determine.

The Greeks proper, the Turks, and the Arabian peasants belong to the former class, with this difference, that the Turks reside only in the towns, where they are in possession of the military employments and the offices of the magistracy, and where they exercise the arts. The Arabs and the Greeks inhabit the villages, and form the class of husbandmen in the country, and the inferior people in the towns. The part of the country which contains the most Greek villages is the Pachalic of Damascus.

The Greeks of the Romish communion, who are much less numerous than the schismatics, are all retired within the towns, where they cultivate the arts and commerce. The protection of the Franks procured them, in the late war, a decided superiority in trade wherever there are European settlements.

The Maronites form a national body, which occupies almost exclusively the whole country comprised between Nahr-el-kelb (the river of the dog), and Nahr-el-bared (the cold river); from the summit of the mountains on the east to the Mediterranean on the west.

The Druzes border upon them, and extend from Nahr-el-kelb to the neighbourhood of Sour (Tyre), between the valley of Bekaa and the sea.

The country of the Motoualis formerly included the valley of Bekaa as far as Sour; but this people, of late years, have undergone a revolution, which has reduced them almost to nothing.

As for the Ansarians, they are dispersed throughout the mountains, from Nahr-akkah

as far as to Antakia; they are distinguished into different tribes, such as the Kelbia, the Kadmousia, the Shamsia, &c.

The Turkomen, the Curds, and the Bedouins have no fixed habitations, but keep perpetually wandering with their tents and herds in limited districts, of which they look upon themselves as the proprietors. The Turkoman hordes generally encamp on the plain of Antioch; the Curds in the mountains between Alexandretta and the Euphrates; and the Arabs spread over the whole frontier of Syria, adjacent to their deserts, and even the plains of the interior part of the country, as those of Palestine, Bekaa, and Galilee.

To form more distinct ideas of these different classes let us consider more circumstantially what is peculiar to each of them.

The Turkomen are of the number of those Tartar hordes, who, on the great revolutions of the empire of the khalifs, emigrated from the eastward of the Caspian sea, and spread themselves over the vast plains of Armenia and Asia Minor. Their language is the same with that of the Turks, and their mode of life nearly similar to that of the Bedouin Arabs. Like them they are pastors, and consequently obliged to travel over immense tracts of land to procure subsistence for their numerous herds. But there is this difference, that the countries frequented by the Turkomen being rich in pasturage, they can feed more cattle on them, and are therefore less dispersed than the Arabs. Each of their ordous or camps acknowledges a chief, whose power is not determined by fixed laws, but governed by custom and circumstances. It is rarely abused, because the society is compact, and the nature of their situation maintains sufficient equality among its members. Every man able to bear arms is anxious to carry them, since, on his individual force depend both his personal safety and the respect paid him by his companions. All their property consists in cattle, that is camels, buffaloes, goats, and especially sheep. They live on milk, butter, and meat, which are in great abundance among them, and the overplus of which they sell in the towns and the neighbouring country, for they are almost able alone to supply the butcheries. In return, they take arms, clothes, money, and corn. Their women spin wool and make carpets, the use of which is immemorial in these countries, and consequently indicates their manner of living to have been always the same. As for the men, their whole occupation consists in smoking and looking after their flocks. Perpetually on horseback, with their lances on their shoulder, their crooked sabres by their sides, and their pistols in their belts, they are expert horsemen and indefatigable soldiers. They have frequent differences with the Turks, who dread them; but as they are divided among themselves, and form separate camps, they do not assume that superiority which their combined forces would ensure them. The Pachalics of Aleppo and Damascus, which are the only parts of Syria they frequent, may be computed to contain about 30,000 wandering Turkomen. A great number of these tribes pass in summer into Armenia and Caramania, where they find grass in great abundance, and return to their former quarters in the winter. The Turkomen are reputed Mussulmen, and generally bear the distinguishing mark, circumcision. But they trouble themselves very little about religion, and they have neither the ceremonies nor the fanaticism of sedentary nations. To describe their manners accurately it would be necessary to have lived among them. They have however the reputation of not being robbers, like the Arabs, though they are neither less generous nor less hospitable than they; and when we consider that they live in plenty without being

rich, and are inured to war and hardened by fatigue and danger, we may presume they are equally removed from the ignorance and servility of the peasants, and the corruption and selfishness of the inhabitants of the towns.

The Curds are subject to a sort of feudal government, which appears similar to that we observe among the Druzes. Each village has its chief, and the whole nation is divided into different and independent factions. The disputes inseparable from this state of anarchy have detached from the nation a great number of tribes and families, which have adopted the wandering life of Turkomen and Arabs. These are dispersed in the Diarbekir and over the plains of Arzroum, Erivan, Sivas, Aleppo, and Damascus: all their tribes united are estimated to exceed 140,000 tents; that is 140,000 armed men. Like the Turkomen these Curds are pastors and wanderers; but differ from them in some particular customs. The Turkomen give their daughters a marriage dower; the Curds receive a premium for them: the Turkomen pay no respect to that antiquity of extraction which we call nobility; the Curds honour it above every thing: the Turkomen do not steal; the Curds are almost every where looked upon as plunderers, on which account they are much dreaded in the neighbourhood of Aleppo and of Antioch, where they occupy, under the name of Bagdashlia, the mountains to the east of Beilam, as far as near Kles. In this Pachalic and in that of Damascus their number exceeds 20,000 tents and huts; for they have also fixed habitations. They are reputed Mahometans; but they never trouble themselves about religious rites or opinions.

The wandering Arabs have been already described, and will again be slightly noticed in our account of Egypt.

The Ansarians are the disciples of an old man, who appeared in the ninth century in the village of Nasar, called himself the Holy Spirit and John the son of Zachary, and taught his followers to fast but two days in the year, to drink wine, and abstain from the flesh of carnivorous animals. Many of the Ansaria believe in the metempsychosis, others reject the immortality of the soul, and, in general, in that civil and religious anarchy, that ignorance and rudeness, which prevail among them, these peasants adopt what opinions they think proper, following the sect they like best, and frequently attaching themselves to none.

Their country is divided into three principal districts, farmed by the chiefs called Mokaddamim. Their tribute is paid to the Pacha of Tripoli, from whom they annually receive their title. Their mountains are in general not so steep as those of Lebanon, and consequently are better adapted to cultivation; but they are also much exposed to the Turks, and hence, doubtless, it happens, that with greater plenty of corn, tobacco, wines, and olives, they are more thinly inhabited than those of their neighbours the Maronites.

The Maronites were formerly a distinct sect of Christians, but are now united with the church of Rome. They all live dispersed in the mountains, in villages, hamlets, and even detached houses, which is never the case in the plains. The whole nation consists of cultivators. Every man improves the little domain he possesses or farms with his own hands. Even the Shaiks live in the same manner, and they are only distinguished from the people by a bad Pelice, a horse, a few slight advantages in food and lodging; they all live frugally, without many enjoyments, but also with few wants, as they are little acquainted with the inventions of luxury. In general the nation is poor, but no man

wants necessaries; and if beggars are sometimes seen, they come rather from the sea-coast than the country itself. Property is as sacred among them as in Europe; nor do we see there those robberies and extortions so frequent with the Turks. Travellers may journey there either by night or day with a security unknown in any other part of the empire, and the stranger meets with hospitality as among the Arabs; it must be owned, however, that the Maronites are less generous and rather inclined to the vice of parsimony. Conformably to the doctrines of Christianity they have only one wife, whom they espouse frequently without having seen, and always without having been much in her company. Contrary to the precepts of that same religion, however, they have admitted or retained the Arab custom of retaliation, and the nearest relation of a murdered person is bound to avenge him. From a habit founded on distrust and the political state of the country, every one, whether Shaik or peasant, walks continually armed with fusil and poniards. As the country maintains no regular troops, every man is obliged to join the army in time of war; and if this militia were well conducted, it would be superior to many European armies. From accounts taken in late years the number of men fit to bear arms amounts to 35,000.

The Motoualis are of the sect of Ali, and assume to themselves the name of Justiciarians, from the doctrine that God always acts on the principles of justice, conformable to human reason. A great part of this nation perished in those civil commotions which disturbed Syria in the middle of the 18th century.

The Druzes profess to believe that Al Hakem, a tyrannical khalif of Egypt, was an incarnation of the deity.

They practise neither circumcision, nor prayers, nor fasting; they observe neither festivals nor prohibitions; they drink wine, eat pork, and allow marriage between brothers and sisters, though not between fathers and children. From this we may conclude with reason that the Druzes have no religion; yet one class of them must be excepted, whose religious customs are very peculiar. Those who compose it are to the rest of the nation what the initiated were to the profane; they assume the name of Okkals, which means spiritualists, and bestow on the vulgar the epithet of Djahel or ignorant; they have various degrees of initiation, the highest orders of which require celibacy. These are distinguished by the white turban they affect as a symbol of their purity; and so proud are they of this supposed purity, that they think themselves polluted by even touching a profane person. If you eat out of their plate or drink out of their cup they break them; and hence the custom so general in this country of using vases with a sort of cock, which may be drank out of without touching them with the lips. All their practices are enveloped in mysteries; their oratories always stand alone, and are constantly situated on eminences; in these they hold their secret assemblies, to which women are admitted. It is pretended they perform ceremonies there in presence of a small statue, resembling an ox or a calf; whence some have pretended to prove that they are descended from the Samaritans. But besides that the fact is not well ascertained, the worship of the ox may be deduced from other sources.

They have one or two books, which they conceal with the greatest care; but chance has deceived their jealousy; for in a civil war, which happened six or seven years ago, the Emir Yousef, who is Djahel or ignorant, found one among the pillage of one of their oratories. I am assured, says De Volney, by persons who have read it, that it contains

only a mystic jargon, the obscurity of which doubtless renders it valuable to adepts. Hakem Bamrellah is there spoken of, by whom they mean God in the person of the khalif. It likewise treats of another life, of a place of punishment and a place of happiness, where the Okkals shall, of course, be distinguished. Several degrees of perfection are mentioned, to which they arrive by successive trials. In other respects these sectaries have all the insolence and all the fears of superstition; they are not communicative because they are weak; but it is probable that, were they powerful, they would be promulgators and intolerant.

The rest of the Druzes, strangers to this spirit, are wholly indifferent about religious matters. The Christians who live in their country pretend that several of them believe in the metempsychosis; that others worship the sun, moon, and stars, all which is possible; for, as among the Ansaria, every one left to his own fancy follows the opinion that pleases him most, and these opinions are those which present themselves most naturally to unenlightened minds. When among the Turks they affect the exterior of Mahometans, frequent the mosques, and perform their ablutions and prayers. Among the Maronites they accompany them to church, and like them make use of holy water. Many of them, importuned by the missionaries, suffer themselves to be baptized; and if solicited by the Turks receive circumcision; and conclude by dying neither Christians nor Mahometans: but they are not so indifferent in matters of civil policy.

Their chief, called Hakem or governor, also Emir or prince, is a sort of a king or general, who unites in his own person the civil and military powers. His dignity is sometimes transmitted from father to son, sometimes from one brother to another, and the succession is determined rather by force than any certain laws. Females can in no case pretend to this inheritance. They are already excluded from succession in civil affairs, and consequently can still less expect it in political: in general the Asiatic governments are too turbulent, and their administration renders military talents too necessary to admit of the sovereignty of women. Among the Druzes, the male line of any family being extinguished, the government devolves to him who is in possession of the greatest number of suffrages and resources. But the first step is to obtain the approbation of the Turks, of whom he becomes the vassal and tributary. It even happens frequently, to assert their supremacy, they name the Hakeem, contrary to the wishes of the nation; but this constraint lasts no longer than it is maintained by that violence which gave it birth. The office of the governor is to watch over the good order of the state, and to prevent the Emirs, Shaiks, and villages from making war on each other; in case of disobedience he may employ force. He is also at the head of the civil power, and names the Cadis, only always reserving to himself the power of life and death. He collects the tribute, from which he annually pays to the Pacha a stated sum; this tribute varies in proportion as the nation renders itself more or less formidable: at the beginning of the 17th century it amounted to 160 purses (8330*l.*); but Melhem forced the Turks to reduce it to 60. In 1784 Emir Yousef paid 80 and promised 90. This tribute, which is called Miri, is imposed on the mulberry-trees, vineyards, cotton, and grain. All sown land pays in proportion to its extent, every foot of mulberries is taxed at three medins, or three sols nine deniers (not quite two-pence). A hundred feet of vineyard pays a piaster or 40 medins; and fresh measurements are often made to preserve a just proportion. The Shaiks and

Emirs have no exemption in this respect, and it may be truly said they contribute to the public stock in proportion to their fortune. The collection is made almost without expence. Each man pays his contingent at Dair-el-Kamir, if he pleases, or to the collectors of the prince, who make a circuit round the country after the crop of silks. The surplus of this tribute is for the prince, so that it is his interest to reduce the demands of the Turks, as it would likewise be to augment the impost; but this measure requires the sanction of the Shaiks, who have the privilege of opposing it. Their consent is necessary likewise for peace and war. In these cases the Emir must convoke general assemblies, and lay before them the state of his affairs. There every Shaik and every peasant who has any reputation for courage or understanding is entitled to give his suffrage; so that this government may be considered as a well proportioned mixture of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy. Every thing depends on circumstances; if the governor be a man of ability he is absolute; if weak a cypher. This proceeds from the want of fixed laws; a want common to all Asia, and the radical cause of all the disorders in the governments of the Asiatic nations.

By the last estimates it appears the number of men able to bear arms was 40,000, which supposed a total population of 120,000; no addition is to be made to this calculation, since there are no Druzes in the cities or on the coast. As the whole country contains only 110 square leagues, there results for every league 1090 persons, which is equal to the population of the richest provinces of France. To render this more remarkable it must be observed that the soil is not fertile, that a great many eminences remain uncultivated, that they do not grow corn enough to support themselves three months in the year, that they have no manufactures, and that all their exportations are confined to silks and cottons, the balance of which exceeds very little the importation of corn from the Hauran, the oils of Palestine, and the rice and coffee they procure from Bairout. Whence arises then such a number of inhabitants within so small a space? I can discover (says De Volney) no other cause than that ray of liberty which glimmers in this country. Unlike the Turks every man lives in a perfect security of his life and property. The peasant is not richer than in other countries; but he is free, "he fears not," as I have often heard them say "that the Aga, the Kaimmakam, or the Pacha should send their Djendis to pillage his house, carry off his family, or give him the bastinado." Such oppressions are unknown among these mountains. Security, therefore, has been the original cause of population, from that inherent desire which all men have to multiply themselves wherever they find an easy subsistence. The frugality of the nation, which is content with little, has been a secondary and not less powerful reason; and the third is the emigration of a number of Christian families, who daily desert the Turkish provinces to settle in mount Lebanon, where they are received with open arms by the Maronites, from similarity of religion; and by the Druzes, from principles of toleration, and a conviction how much it is the interest of every country to multiply the number of its cultivators, consumers, and allies.

Syria, as well as Egypt, Persia, and almost all the south of Asia, is subject to a very dreadful calamity, those clouds of locusts so often mentioned by travellers. The quantity of these insects is incredible to all who have not themselves witnessed their astonishing numbers; the whole earth is covered with them for the space of several leagues. The

noise they make in browzing on the trees and herbage may be heard at a great distance, and resembles that of an army foraging in secret. The Tartars themselves are a less destructive enemy than these little animals; one would imagine that fire had followed their progress. Wherever their myriads spread, the verdure of the country disappears, as if a curtain had been removed, trees and plants stripped of their leaves, and reduced to their naked boughs and stems, cause the dreary image of winter to succeed in an instant to the rich scenery of the spring. When these clouds of locusts take their flight, to surmount any obstacle or to traverse more rapidly a desert soil, the heavens may literally be said to be obscured with them. Happily this calamity is not frequently repeated; for it is the inevitable forerunner of famine and the maladies it occasions. The inhabitants of Syria have remarked that locusts are always bred by too mild winters, and that they constantly come from the desert of Arabia. From this observation it is easy to conceive that the cold not having been rigorous enough to destroy their eggs, they multiply suddenly, and the herbage failing them in the immense plains of the desert, innumerable legions issue forth. When they make their first appearance on the frontiers of the cultivated country, the inhabitants strive to drive them off by raising large clouds of smoke, but frequently their herbs and wet straw fail them; they then dig trenches, where numbers of them are buried; but the two most efficacious destroyers of these insects are the south and south-easterly winds, and the bird called the Samarmar. These birds, which greatly resemble the woodpecker, follow them in numerous flocks like starlings, and not only greedily devour them, but kill as many as they can; accordingly they are respected by the peasants, nobody is ever allowed to shoot them. As for the southerly and south-easterly winds, they drive with violence these clouds of locusts over the Mediterranean, where such quantities of them are drowned, that, when their carcases are thrown on the shore, they infect the air for several days, even to a great distance.

Palestine in its present state comprehends the whole country included between the Mediterranean to the west, the chain of mountains to the east, and two lines, one drawn to the south by Kan Younes, and the other to the north, between Kaisaria and the rivulet of Yafa. This whole tract is almost entirely a level plain, without either river or rivulet in summer, but watered by several torrents in winter. Notwithstanding this dryness, the soil is good, and may even be termed fertile, for when the winter rains do not fail every thing springs up in abundance; and the earth, which is black and fat, retains sufficient for the growth of grain and vegetables during the summer. More dourra, sesamum, water-melons, and beans are sown here than in any other part of the country. They also raise cotton, barley, and wheat; but though the latter be most esteemed it is less cultivated, for fear of too much inviting the avarice of the Turkish governors and the rapacity of the Arabs. This country is indeed more frequently plundered than any other in Syria, for being very proper for cavalry, and adjacent to the desert, it lies open to the Arabs, who are far from satisfied with the mountains: they have long disputed it with every power established in it, and have succeeded so far as to obtain the concession of certain places, on paying a tribute, from whence they infest the roads, so as to render it unsafe to travel from Gaza to Acre: they might even have obtained the entire possession of it, had they known how to avail themselves of their strength, but divided themselves by jarring interests and family quarrels, they turn those weapons on each other which they should

employ against the common enemy, and are at once enfeebled by their disregard of all good order and government, and impoverished by their spirit of rapacity.

The principal places in Palestine are Yafa the antient Joppa, Yabnia, which was formerly called Jamnia, and Gaza, celebrated from the time of the Philistines.

Egypt is a long and narrow tract, lying on both sides the Nile. The general appearance of the country is thus described by De Volney.

"As we ascend the river we begin to acquire some general idea of the soil, the climate and productions of this celebrated country. Nothing more resembles its appearance than the marshes of the Lower Loire or the plains of Flanders; instead, however, of the numerous trees and country-houses of the latter, we must imagine some thin woods of palms and sycamores, and a few villages of mud-walled cottages, built on artificial mounds. All this part of Egypt is so level and so low that we are not three leagues from the coast when we first discover the palm trees and the sands on which they grow; from thence, as we proceed up the river, the declivity is so gentle that water does not flow faster than a league an hour. As for the prospect of the country it offers little variety; nothing is to be seen but palm-trees, single or in clumps, which become more rare in proportion as you advance, wretched villages of mud-walled huts, and a boundless plain, which, at different seasons, is an ocean of fresh water, a miry morass, a verdant field, or a dusty desert; and on every side an extensive and foggy horizon, where the eye is wearied and disgusted; at length, towards the junction of the two branches of the river, the mountains of Grand Cairo are discovered in the east, and to the south-west three detached masses appear, which, from their triangular form, are known to be the pyramids. We now enter a valley, which turns to the southward between two chains of parallel eminences. That to the east, which extends to the Red sea, merits the name of a mountain from its precipitate elevation, and that of a desert from its naked and savage aspect; but the western is nothing but a ridge of rock, covered with sand, which has been very properly termed a natural mound or causeway. To describe Egypt in two words, let the reader imagine on one side a narrow sea and rocks; on the other immense plains of sand, and in the middle a river flowing through a valley of 150 leagues in length, and from three to seven wide, which, at the distance of 30 leagues from the sea, separates into two arms, the branches of which wander over a soil free from obstacles, and almost without declivity.

It has been supposed that the whole land of Egypt, and especially of the Delta or Lower Egypt, has been produced by the quantity of earth brought down from Abyssinia by the waters of the Nile. But though this may probably not be the case, it is certain that this country is principally indebted for its fertility to the annual inundations by which it is watered.

Egypt has been divided into the Lower Egypt or Delta, and the Upper Egypt or Thebais. Its principal cities are Alexandretta, Cairo, Damietta, and Rosetta.

Cairo is divided into the New and Old cities. Old Cairo is on the eastern side of the river Nile, and is now almost uninhabited. The New, which is properly Cairo is seated in a sandy plain, about two miles and a half from the old city. It stands on the western side of the Nile, from which it is not three quarters of a mile distant. It is extended along the mountain on which the castle is built, for the sake of which it was removed hither, in order, as some pretend, to be under its protection. Bulack may be

VIEW OF THE PYRAMIDS of MEMPHIS and COLOSSAL SPHYNX'S HEAD.

called the port of Cairo; for it stands on the bank of the Nile, about a mile and half from it, and all the corn and other commodities are landed there before they are brought to the city. Some travellers have made Cairo of a most enormous magnitude, by taking in the old city, Balack, and the new: the real circumference of it, however, is not above ten miles, but it is extremely populous. The first thing that strikes a traveller is the narrowness of the streets and the appearance of the houses. These are so daubed with mud on the outside that you would think they were built with nothing else. Besides, as the streets are unpaved and always full of people, the walking in them is very inconvenient, especially to strangers. To remedy this there are a great number of asses, which always stand ready to be hired for a trifle, that is a penny a mile. The owners drive them along, and give notice to the crowd to give way. And here it may be observed that the Christians, in this as well as other parts of the Turkish dominions, are not permitted to ride upon horses. The number of the inhabitants can only be guessed at; but we may conclude it to be very great, because, in some years, the plague will carry off 200,000 without their being much missed. The houses are from one to two or three stories high, and flat at the top, where they take the air and often sleep all night. The better sort of these have a court on the inside, like a college. The common run of houses have very little room; and even among great people it is usual for 20 or 30 to lie in the small hall. Some houses will hold 300 persons of both sexes, among whom are 20 or 30 slaves; and those of ordinary rank generally three or four.

At present the city of Alexandria is reckoned to have about 14 or 15,000 inhabitants: they are in general given to thieving and cheating; and (like their predecessors) seditious above all others, were they not kept in awe by the severity of their government. The British and French carry on a considerable commerce with them, and have each a consul residing here. Some Venetian ships also sail thither yearly, but with the French colours and under the protection of France. The subjects of those kingdoms which keep no consul here are subjected to tax by the grand signior: but the Jews have found out a method of indemnifying themselves from this disadvantage; namely, by selling their commodities cheaper than other foreigners can afford. They are also favoured by the farmers of the revenue; who know that if they do not pay some private regard to them, the Jews have it in their power to cause fewer merchandizes to come into their port during the two years that their farm lasts.

The present city is a kind of peninsula, situated between the two ports: that to the westward was called by the antients the Portus Eunostus, now the Old Port, and is by far the best; Turkish vessels only are allowed to anchor there: the other, called the New Port, is for the Christians; at the extremity of one of the arms of which stood the famous Pharos. The New Port, the only harbour for the Europeans, is clogged up with sand, insomuch that, in stormy weather, ships are liable to bilge; and the bottom being also rocky, the cables soon chafe and part; so that, one vessel driving against a second, and that against a third, they are perhaps all lost. Of this there was a fatal instance 16 or 18 years ago, in a gale of wind to the north-west, and numbers have been since lost there at different times. If it be asked in Europe, Why do they not repair the New Port? the answer is that in Turkey they destroy every thing and repair nothing. The old harbour will be destroyed likewise, as the ballast of vessels has been continually thrown into

it for the last 200 years. The spirit of the Turkish government is to ruin the labours of past ages and destroy the hopes of future times; because the barbarity of ignorant despotism never considers to-morrow.

In time of war Alexandria is of no importance; no fortification is to be seen; even the Farillon, with its lofty towers, cannot be defended; it has not four cannon fit for service, nor a gunner who knows how to point them. The 500 janisaries who should form the garrison, reduced to half that number, know nothing but how to smoke a pipe. But Alexandria is a place of which the conquest would be of no value. A foreign power could not maintain itself there, as the country is without water. This must be brought from the Nile by the kalidj or canal of 12 leagues, which conveys it thither every year at the inundation. It fills the vaults or reservoirs dug under the antient city, and this provision must serve till the next year. It is evident, therefore, that, were a foreign power to take possession, the canal would be shut, and all supplies of water cut off. It is this canal alone which connects Alexandria with Egypt; for, from its situation without the Delta, and the nature of the soil, it really belongs to the deserts of Africa. Its environs are sandy, flat, and sterile, without trees and without houses, where we meet with nothing but the plant which yields the kali, and a row of palm-trees, which follows the course of the kalidj or canal.

The city is governed like others in the same kingdom. It hath a small garrison of soldiers, part of which are janisaries and Assaffs; who are very haughty and insolent, not only to strangers but to the mercantile and industrious part of the people, though ever so considerable and useful. The government is so remiss in favour of these wretches, that, Mr. Norden informs us, one of them did not hesitate to kill a farmer of the customs, for refusing to take less of him than the duty imposed, and went off unpunished; it being a common salvo among them that what is done cannot be undone.

The present condition of Alexandria is very despicable, being now so far ruined, that the rubbish, in many places, overtops the houses. The famous tower of Pharos has long since been demolished, and a castle, called Farillon, built in its place. The causeway, which joined the island to the continent, is broken down, and its place supplied by a stone bridge of several arches.

Some parts of the old walls of the city present us with a master-piece of antient masonry. They are flanked with large towers, about 200 paces distant from each other, with small ones in the middle. Below are magnificent casemates, which may serve for galleries to walk in. In the lower part of the towers is a large square hall, whose roof is supported by thick columns of Thebaic stone. Above this are several rooms, over which are platforms, more than 20 paces square. The antient reservoirs, vaulted with so much art, which extend under the whole town, are almost entire at the end of 2000 years.

Damietta is rounded in a semicircle on the eastern bank of the Nile, two leagues and a half from the mouth of it. The eye, placed at one of the extremities of the crescent, takes in its whole extent. It is reckoned to contain 80,000 souls. It has several squares, the most considerable of which has retained the name of Meuchie. The bazars are filled with merchants. Spacious okals or khans, collecting under their porticos the stuffs of India, the silks of mount Lebanon, sal ammoniac, and pyramids of rice, proclaim that it is a commercial town. The houses, those in particular which are on the banks of the river,

are very lofty. They have, in general, handsome saloons, built on the top of their terraces, which are cheerful belvideres open to every wind, where the Turk, effeminately reclining on a sopha, passes his life in smoking, in looking on the sea, which bounds the horizon on one side, and the great lake that extends itself on the other, and on the Nile, which running between them, traverses a rich country. Several large mosques, adorned with lofty minarets, are dispersed over the town. The public baths, lined with marble, are distributed in the same manner as those of Grand Cairo.

The port of Damietta is continually filled with a multitude of boats and small vessels; those called scherm serve to convey the merchandize on board the ships in the road, and to unload them; the others carry on the coasting trade. This town carries on a great trade with Syria, with Cyprus, and Marseilles. The rice called Mezolaoni, of the finest quality there is in Egypt, is cultivated in the neighbouring plains; the exports of it amount annually to about 6,000,000 of livres. The other articles of the produce of the country are linens, sal ammoniac, corn, &c. A ruinous policy for the country prohibits the exportation of this last article; but the law is evaded, and it passes under the name of rice.

Rosetta is pleasantly situated on the west side of that branch of the Nile called by the antients Bolbitinum, affirmed by Herodotus to have been formed by art; the town and castle being on the right hand as you enter that river. Any one that sees the hills about Rosetta would judge that they had been the antient barriers of the sea, and conclude that the sea has not lost more ground than the space between the hills and the water.

Rosetta is grown a considerable place for commerce, and hath some good manufactures in the linen and cotton way; but its chief business is the carriage of goods to Cairo; all the European merchandize being brought thither from Alexandria by sea, and carried in boats to that capital; as those that are brought down from it on the Nile are there shipped off for Alexandria; on which account the Europeans have here their vice-consuls and factors to transact their business; and the government maintains a beig and custom-house, and a garrison to keep all safe and quiet.

The inhabitants of Egypt may be distinguished into four classes; the Arabians, Copts, Turks, and Mamlouks.

The first and most generally dispersed is that of the Arabs, which may be divided into three classes. First, the posterity of those, who, on the conquest of Egypt by Amrou, in the year 640, hastened from the Hedjaz and every part of Arabia to settle in this country, so justly celebrated for its fertility. Every one was anxious to possess lands in it, and the Delta was presently filled with foreigners, to the prejudice of the vanquished Greeks. This first race is preserved in the present class of fellahs or husbandmen and artizans, who still retain the characteristic features of their ancestors, but are taller and stronger made, the natural effect of a more plentiful nourishment than that of the deserts. In general the Egyptian peasants reach the height of five feet four inches, and many among them attain to five feet six or seven. They are muscular, without being fleshy and corpulent, as men will be who are hardened to fatigue. Their skin, tanned by the sun, is almost black, but their countenances have nothing disagreeable. The greatest part of them have heads of a fine oval, large and projecting foreheads, and under a dark eyebrow a black, sunken, but brilliant eye; the nose large, but not aquiline, well-shaped mouths, and, without exception, fine teeth. The inhabitants of the great towns, more motley,

have a less uniform and marked physiognomy. Those of the villages, on the contrary, forming no alliances but in their own families, have more general and more constant characteristics, and something of ferocity in their air, which originates in the passions of a mind continually soured by the perpetual war and tyranny which surround them.

A second class of Arabs is that of the Africans or Occidentals, who have arrived at different periods and under different chiefs, and united themselves to the former; like them they are descended from the Mussulmen conquerors, who expelled the Greeks from Mauritania; like them they exercise agriculture and trades, but they are more especially numerous in the Said, where they have villages and even distinct sovereigns of their own.

The third class is that of the Bedouins or inhabitants of the deserts, known to the antients by the name of Scenites, that is dwellers in tents. Some of these, dispersed in families, inhabit the rocks, caverns, ruins, and sequestered places, where there is water; others, united in tribes, encamp under low and smoky tents, and pass their lives in perpetual journeyings, sometimes in the desert, sometimes on the banks of the river; having no other attachment to the soil than what arises from their own safety or the subsistence of their flocks. There are tribes of them who arrive every year, after the inundation, from the heart of Africa, to profit by the fertility of the country, and who, in the spring, retire into the depths of the desert; others are stationary in Egypt, where they farm lands, which they sow and annually change. All of them observe among themselves stated limits, which they never pass, on pain of war. They all lead nearly the same kind of life, and have the same manners and customs. Ignorant and poor, the Bedouins preserve an original character, distinct from surrounding nations. Pacific in their camp, they are every where else in an habitual state of war. The husbandmen, whom they pillage, hate them; the travellers, whom they despoil, speak ill of them; and the Turks, who dread them, endeavour to divide and corrupt them. It is calculated that the different tribes of them in Egypt might form a body of 30,000 horsemen; but these are so dispersed and disunited that they are only considered as robbers and vagabonds.

A second race of inhabitants are the Copts, called in Arabic el Kobt. Several families of them are to be found in the Delta; but the greatest part inhabit the Said, where they in some places occupy whole villages. Both history and tradition attest their descent from the people who were conquered by the Arabs; that is from that mixture of Egyptians, Persians, and above all Greeks, who, under the Ptolemies and Constantines were so long in possession of Egypt. They differ from the Arabs by their religion, which is Christianity, but they are again distinct from other Christians by their sect being Eutychians. Their adherence to the theological distinctions of this heresy has drawn persecutions on them on the part of the other Greeks, which has rendered them irreconcilable enemies. When the Arabs conquered the country they took advantage of these animosities to enfeeble them both. The Copts have at length expelled their rivals, and, as they have been always intimately acquainted with the interior of the country, they are become the depositaries of the registers of the lands and tribes. Under the name of writers, they are at Cairo the intendants, secretaries, and collectors of government. These writers, despised by the Turks, whom they serve, and hated by the peasants, whom they oppress, form a kind of separate class, the head of which is the writer to the principal. He disposes of all employments in that department, which, according to the spirit of the Turkish government,

A MAMELUKE AND TURKS OF EGYPT

he bestows on the best bidder. The Turks are the officers of government, and the Cadis or magistrates in the towns.

The Mamlouks are originally slaves, imported from Georgia; but, having been first instructed by their masters in the management of arms and horses, are presented with their liberty; and, in a country of continual anarchy, soon rise into consequence. They attach themselves to certain leaders, who, in order to keep their usurped authority, maintain them in the utmost extravagance, and have recourse to every species of violence and extortion to support the consequent expences. These beys, though they acknowledge the authority of the grand seignior, pay him but a very precarious obedience, and are, in fact the only governors of Egypt. Under them the inhabitants are grievously oppressed, being scarcely possessed of any security for person or property.

We may easily judge that in such a country every thing is analagous to so wretched a government. Wherever the cultivator enjoys not the fruit of his labour he works only by constraint, and agriculture languishes. Wherever there is no security in property there can be no industry to procure it, and the arts must remain in their infancy. Wherever knowledge has no object men will do nothing to acquire it, and their minds will continue in a state of barbarism. Such is the condition of Egypt. The greater part of the lands are in the hands of the beys, the Mamlouks, and the professors of the law; the number of the other proprietors is extremely small, and their property liable to a thousand impositions. Every moment some contribution is to be paid or some damage repaired; there is no right of succession or inheritance for real property; every thing returns to government, from which every thing must be repurchased. The peasants are hired labourers, to whom no more is left than barely suffices to sustain life. The rice and corn they gather are carried to the table of their masters, and nothing reserved for them but dourra or Indian millet, of which they make a bread, without leaven, which is tasteless when cold. This bread, baked by a fire, kindled with the dried dung of buffaloes and cows, is, with water and onions, their only food throughout the year; and they esteem themselves happy if they can sometimes procure a little honey, cheese, sour milk, and dates. Flesh meat and fat, which they are passionately fond of, make their appearance only on the great festivals, and among those who are in the best circumstances.

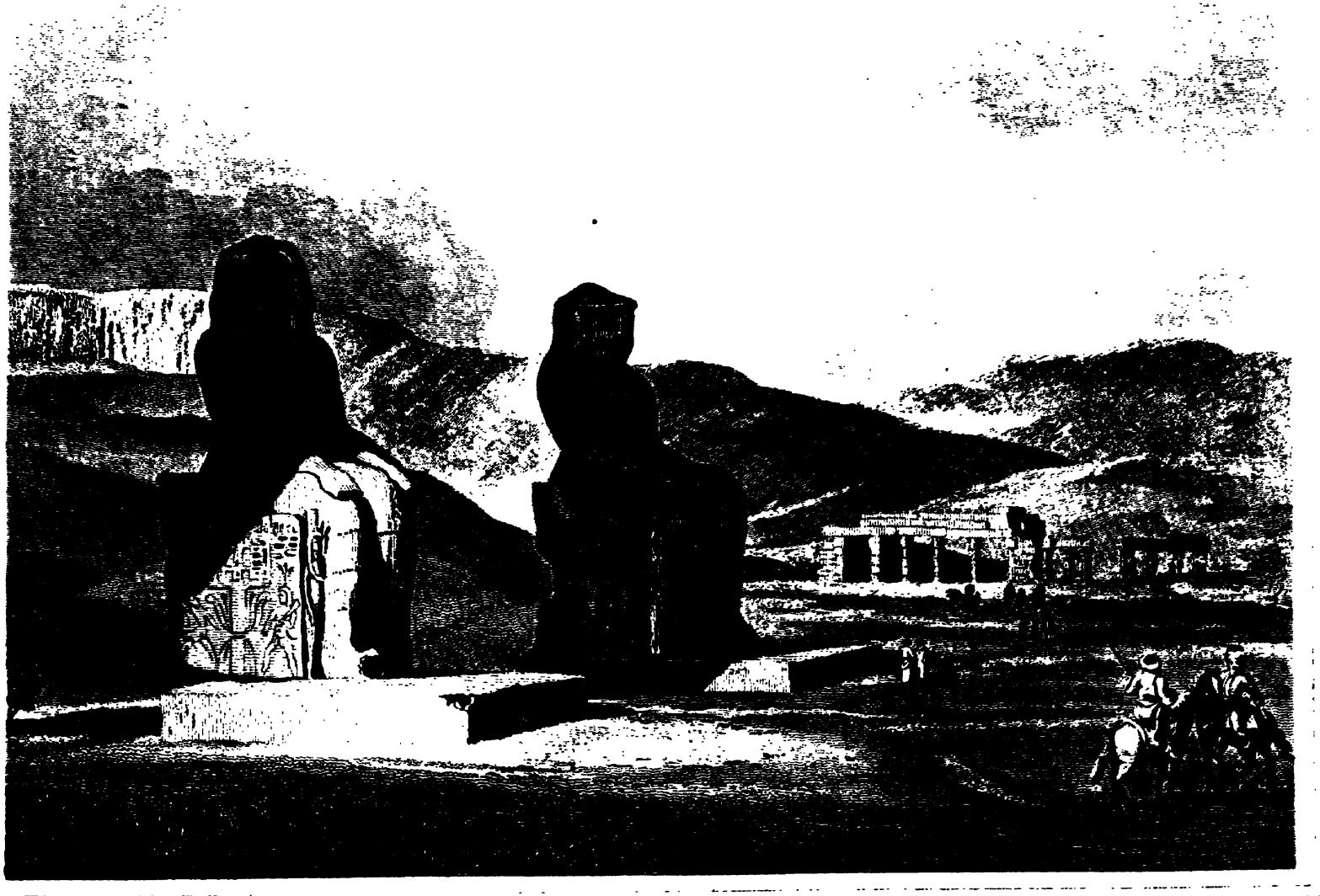
Their whole clothing consists in a shirt of coarse, blue linen, and in a clumsy, black cloak: their head-dress is a sort of cloth bonnet, over which they roll a long handkerchief of red woollen: their arms, legs, and breasts are naked, and the greatest part of them do not even wear drawers. Their habitations are mud-walled huts, in which they are suffocated with heat and smoke, and frequently attacked by maladies arising from uncleanness, humidity, and unwholesome food; and, to fill the measure of their wretchedness, to these physical evils are added continual alarms, dread of the robberies of the Arabs and the extortions of the Mamlouks, family feuds, and all the anxieties of a perpetual civil war.

This is a just picture of all the villages, and equally resembles the towns. At Cairo itself, a stranger, at his arrival, is struck with the universal appearance of wretchedness and misery. The crowds which throng the streets present to his sight nothing but hideous rags and disgusting nudities. It is true he often meets with horsemen richly clad; but this display of luxury only renders the contrast of indigence the more shocking. Every thing he sees or hears reminds him he is in the country of slavery and tyranny. Nothing

is talked of but intestine troubles, the public misery, pecuniary extortions, bastinadoes, and murders. There is no security for life or property. The blood of men is shed like that of the vilest animals. Justice herself puts to death without formality. The officer of the night, in his rounds, and the officer of the day, in his circuit, judge, condemn, and execute, in the twinkling of an eye, without appeal. Executioners attend them, and, on the first signal, the head of the unhappy victim falls in the leathern bag, in which it is received for fear of soiling the place. Were even the appearance of criminality necessary to expose to the danger of punishment, this would be more tolerable; but frequently, without any other reason than the avidity of a powerful chief, or the information of an enemy, a man is summoned before some bey, on suspicion of having money. A sum is demanded from him, and if he denies that he possesses it, he is thrown on his back, and receives 2 or 300 blows on the soles of his feet, nay sometimes is put to death. Unfortunate is he who is suspected of being in easy circumstances! A hundred spies are every moment ready to accuse him, and it is only by assuming the appearance of poverty that he can hope to escape the rapaciousness of power.

Nubia, a kingdom of Africa, bounded on the north by Egypt; on the east by the Red sea and part of Abyssinia; on the west by the kingdoms of Tagua, Gaoga, and desert of Gerham. The river Nile runs through it, on the banks of which and those of the other rivers it is pretty fruitful, but in other places barren, sandy, and in want of water. To the west of the Nile is the desert of Bahouda, which is five days journey over, being the usual road from Egypt to Abyssinia. Money is of no use in this country in the way of trade, it being all carried on by way of exchange. Their bread and drink is made of a small red seed, called doca or seft, which is very ill tasted. Their houses have mud walls, being very low, and covered with reeds. The habit of the better sort is a vest without sleeves; and they have no coverings for the heads, legs, and feet: the common people wrap a piece of linen cloth about them, and the children go quite naked. They are a stupid, debauched sort of people, having neither modesty, civility, nor religion; though they profess to be Mahometans. The productions of this country are gold, elephants' teeth, civit, and sandal wood; and they send a great many slaves into Egypt: the principal towns known to the Europeans are Dangola and Sennaar.

It is famous for a race of horses, the most powerful and docile in the world. These animals are generally about 16 hands high; and, by Mr. Bruce, who has given the most scientific account of them, they are said to be the breed which was introduced into Nubia at the Saracen conquest, and has been preserved unmixed to this day. Our author represents this as a much nobler animal than the Arabian horse. "What figure (says he) the Nubian horse would make in point of fleetness is very doubtful, his make being so entirely different from that of the Arabian; but if beautiful symmetry of parts, great size and strength, the most agile, nervous, and the most elastic movements, great endurance of fatigue, docility of temper, and seeming attachment to men, beyond that of any other domestic animal, can promise any thing for a stallion, the Nubian is, above all comparison, the most eligible in the world." He thinks, and justly thinks, that an attempt should at least be made to import them into this kingdom. "The expence (he says) would not be great, though there might be some trouble and application necessary; but if adroitly managed not much even of that. The Nubians are very jealous in keeping up the



The Colossal STATUES with the Ruins of the Palace of MEMNON oposite Carnac on the NILE.

From an original Drawing in the Collection of John King Esq.r

Published as the Act directs by [illegible] Brunswick, Oct. 12th 1801.

pedigree of their horses, which are black or white, but a vast proportion of the former to the latter." Our author never saw the colour which we call grey, i. e. dappled; but he has seen some bright bays, and some inclining to sorrel. All noble horses in Nubia are said to be descended from one of the five upon which Mahomet and his four immediate successors, Abu Becr, Omar, Atmen, and Ali, fled from Mecca to Medina the night of the Hegira. No one will pay much regard to this legendary tale, or believe that the strength and beauty of this breed of horses is owing to any virtue communicated to the first of them by the prophet and his apostles. Mr. Bruce accounts for their excellence upon rational principles. "The best horses of the Arabian breed are found (he says) in the tribe of Mowelli and Annecy, which is about 36° north latitude. Dongala, which is in 20° latitude, seemed to him to be the centre of excellence for this noble animal." Hence he infers that the bounds in which the horse is in greatest perfection are between the 20th and 36th degrees of latitude, and between 30 degrees of longitude east from Greenwich and the banks of the Euphrates. If to the effects of climate we add the manner of feeding the Nubian horses, we shall perhaps have the true cause of their superiority over all others. "They are kept fat upon dora, and suffered to eat nothing green but the short roots of grass that are to be found by the side of the Nile after the sun has withered it. This is dug out where it is covered with earth, and appears blanched and laid in small heaps once a-day on the ground before them."

Turkish Nubia extends to the 21st degree of latitude, and comprehends the mountains of Allum and the port of Gidid.

CHAPTER II.

Historical View of the Turkish Empire.

THE countries which constitute the Turkish empire have been inhabited by nations of different manners, languages, and origin; but who have been, in several different ages, wholly or partially united by the performance of the same religious rites, and by being subjects of the same government.

The first event in their history is the erection of the tower of Babel in the land of Shinar. Whether this was the act of the whole human race or only of the followers of Nimrod, and whether its consequences were a lasting confusion of languages or some temporary impediment in the communication of ideas, we shall not attempt to decide. It is, however, generally supposed that about the time of this confusion the sons and grandchildren of Noah began to lead forth distinct colonies to occupy different regions of the earth. Of these, Javan, the son of Japhet, the supposed father of the Greeks; Tiras of the Thracians; Arphaxad of the Mesopotamians; Ashur of the Assyrians; Cush of the Babylonians; Lud of the Lydians; Aram of the Syrians; Canaan of the Canaanites and the Phenicians; Mezraim of the Egyptians and Philistines; and Phut of the shepherds of Nubia. Nimrod and Ashur appear early to have erected empires; the former fixing his capital at Babylon and the latter at Nineveh. These empires or kingdoms seem, however, to have paid some degree of homage to that early race of Persian kings to which Chedorlaomer belongs.

As the world was early overspread with idolatry, or at least its seeds began to unfold in many different countries, God was pleased to raise up a race of extraordinary men about 2000 years before the Christian era, to assert the unity of his nature and the purity of his worship. These were the patriarchs, Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, and their families; their manners resembled those of the present Arabians, only that they never practised robbery; and, as the world was but thinly inhabited, were enabled to feed their flocks on fertile lands, instead of being obliged to wander in the deserts.

Within about 200 years of the call of Abraham, the descendants of Jacob were led, by an extraordinary train of circumstances, to go down into Egypt. Here their numbers prodigiously increased, being tripled every generation; they forgot the purity of their worship, and though at first kindly treated by the Egyptians, after some revolution had taken place in the government, became objects of jealousy, and were treated with the most cruel severity. About two centuries after they were delivered from this bondage, and led by Moses for 40 years in the wilderness of Sinai. At that mountain they received their law, a singular collection of moral, political, and ceremonial institutions, many of which had been known and practised by the patriarchs before the late defection in religion.

Canaan was at this time inhabited by several warlike, industrious, and ingenious nations, who were addicted to the grossest idolatry. To revenge this insult to his character, the Almighty gave their land to the Israelites, who were commanded to show them no mercy. The descendants of Jacob did not, however, utterly destroy them, but, on the contrary,

soon imitated their practices, and thus brought upon themselves a succession of calamities. They were at this time subject to judges, who probably possessed no legal authority, but had established an influence by their virtues and abilities. Sometimes they governed the whole land of Canaan, but at other times their authority seems to have been more limited, so that several of these judges governed at the same time.

After that the Israelites had been governed by judges about 400 years, they were desirous to have a king, who should be their chief commander in war and their chief magistrate at home. Their first king was Saul, a man of extraordinary stature; the second David, celebrated for his chequered life, his piety, and his conquests; and the third was Solomon, distinguished for his wisdom and for an astonishing abundance of wealth; this wealth was probably obtained by the victories of his father, the tribute of the neighbouring nations, and the commerce which, by sea and land, was carried on with India and Africa. He erected many public buildings, the most celebrated of which was the temple.

The death of Solomon was succeeded by a schism among the Israelites; the tribes of Judah and Benjamin adhering to the posterity of David, while the other branches of the family of Jacob chose to themselves a king, who was named Jeroboam. The kingdom of Judah was governed sometimes by pious and sometimes by idolatrous princes; but though, on some occasions, it exerted considerable vigour, was never able to regain that character it sustained in the days of David and of Solomon. Israel, on the contrary, at once sunk into idolatry, and had for its kings a succession of wicked rulers, of several different families. The contentions between these rival states prepared the way for a third kingdom, that of Syria or Damascus, to obtain considerable power. The Benhadads, who governed this last country, were very formidable and cruel adversaries to both the Israelitish houses, but were at length completely subdued by Tiglathpilezer, king of Assyria.

It is probable that the origin and revolutions of the Assyrian monarchy were as follows: The founder of it was Ashur, the second son of Shem, who went out of Shinar, either by appointment of Nimrod, or to elude the fury of a tyrant; conducted a large body of adventurers into Assyria, and laid the foundation of Nineveh (Gen. x. xi.). These events happened not long after Nimrod had established the Chaldean monarchy, and fixed his residence at Babylon. The Persian historians suppose that the kings of Persia, at the first dynasty, were the same with the kings of Assyria, of whom Zohak or Nimrod was the founder of Babel. It does not, however, appear that Nimrod reigned in Assyria. The kingdoms of Babylon and Assyria were originally distinct and separate (Micah v. vi.): and in this state they remained until Ninus conquered Babylon, and made it tributary to the Assyrian empire. Ninus, the successor of Ashur, (Gen. x. xi.) seized on Chaldea after the death of Nimrod, and united the kingdoms of Assyria and Babylon. This great prince is said to have subdued Asia, Persia, Media, Egypt, &c. If he did so the effects of his conquests were of no duration; for in the days of Abraham we do not find that any of the neighbouring kingdoms were subject to Assyria. He was succeeded by Semiramis, a princess of an heroic mind, bold, enterprising, fortunate, but of whom many fabulous things have been recorded. It appears, however, that there were two princesses of the same name, who flourished at very different periods. One of them was the consort of Ninus; and the other lived five generations before Nitocris, queen of Nebuchadnezzar.

Whether there was uninterrupted series of kings from Ninus to Sardanapalus or not is

still a question. Some suspicion has arisen that the list which Cresias has given of the Assyrian kings is not genuine; for many names in it are of Persian, Egyptian, and Grecian extraction.

Nothing memorable has been recorded concerning the successors of Ninus and Semiramis. Of that effeminate race of princes it is barely said that they ascended the throne, lived in indolence, and died in their palace at Nineveh. Diodorus relates that in the reign of Teutames, the Assyrians, solicited by Priam, their vassal, sent to the Trojans a supply of 20,000 foot and 200 chariots, under the command of Memnon, son of Tithonus, president of Persia. But the truth of this relation is rendered doubtful by the accounts of other writers.

Sardanapalus was the last of the antient Assyrian kings. Contemning his indolent and voluptuous course of life, Arbaces, governor of Media, withdrew his allegiance, and rose up in rebellion against him. He was encouraged in this revolt by the advice and assistance of Belesis, a Chaldean priest, who engaged the Babylonians to follow the example of the Medes. These powerful princes, aided by the Persians and other allies, who despised the effeminacy, or dreaded the tyranny of their Assyrian lords, attacked the empire on all sides. Their most vigorous efforts were in the beginning unsuccessful. Firm and determined, however, in their opposition, they at length prevailed, defeated the Assyrian army, besieged Sardanapalus in his capital, which they demolished, and became masters of the empire. B. C. 821.

After the death of Sardanapalus the Assyrian empire was divided into three kingdoms, viz. the Median, Assyrian, and Babylonian. Arbaces retained the supreme power and authority, and fixed his residence at Ecbatana in Media. He nominated governors in Assyria and Babylon, who were honoured with the title of kings, while they remained subject and tributary to the Median monarchs. Belesis received the government of Babylon as the reward of his services; and Phul was intrusted with that of Assyria. The Assyrian governor gradually enlarged the boundaries of his kingdom, and was succeeded by Tiglath-pileser, Salmanasar, and Sennacherib, who asserted and maintained their independancy. After the death of Assar-haddon, the brother and successor of Sennacherib, the kingdom of Assyria was split, and annexed to the kingdoms of Media and Babylon. Several tributary princes afterwards reigned in Nineveh, but no particular account of them is found in the annals of antient nations. We hear no more of the kings of Assyria but of those of Babylon. Cyaxares, king of Media, assisted Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, in the siege of Nineveh, which they took and destroyed. B. C. 606. The Chaldean or Babylonish kingdom was transferred to the Medes after the reign of Nabonadius, son of Evilmerodach, and grandson of Nebuchadnezzar. He is styled Belshazzer in the sacred records, and was conquered by Cyrus. B. C. 538.

Babylon was surrounded with walls, in thickness 87 feet, in height 350 feet, and in compass 480 furlongs, or 60 of our miles. Thus Herodotus, who was himself at Babylon; and though some disagree with him in these dimensions, yet most writers give us the same or near the same as he does. Diodorus Siculus diminishes the circumference of these walls very considerably, and takes somewhat from the height of them as in Herodotus; though he seems to add to their breadth, by saying that six chariots might drive a-breast thereon; while the former writes that one chariot only might turn upon them; but then

he places buildings on each side of the top of these walls, which according to him, were but one story high; which may pretty well reconcile them together in this respect. It is observed that those who give the height of these walls but at 50 cubits speak of them only as they were after the time of Darius Hystaspis, who had caused them to be beaten down to that level. These walls formed an exact square; each side of which was 120 furlongs or 15 miles in length; and were all built of large bricks, cemented together with bitumen, which, in a short time, grows harder than the very brick and stone which it cements. The city was encompassed without the walls with a vast ditch, filled with water, and lined with bricks on both sides; and as the earth that was dug out of it served to make the bricks, we may judge of the depth and largeness of the ditch from the height and thickness of the walls. In the whole compass of the wall there were 100 gates, that is 25 on each of the four sides, all made of solid brass. Between every two of these gates, at proper distances, were three towers, and four more at the four corners of this great square, and three between each of these corners and the next gate on either side, and each of these towers was ten feet higher than the walls. But this is to be understood only of those parts of the walls where towers were needful for defence. For some parts of them being upon a morass and inaccessible by an enemy, the labour and cost was spared; which, though it must have spoiled the symmetry of the whole, must be allowed to have savoured of good economy; though that is what one would not have expected from a prince who had been so determined as Nebuchadnezzar must have been to make the city complete both for strength and beauty. The whole number then of these towers amounted to no more than 250; whereas a much greater number would have been necessary to have made the uniformity complete all round. From the 25 gates on each side of this square there was a straight street, extending to the corresponding gate in the opposite wall; whence the whole number of streets must have been but 50; but then they were each about 15 miles long; 25 of them crossing the other 25 exactly at right angles. Besides these whole streets we must reckon four half-streets, which were but rows of houses facing the four inner sides of the walls. These four half-streets were properly the four sides of the city within the walls, and were each of them 200 feet broad; the whole streets being about 150 of the same. By this intersection of the 50 streets the city was divided into 676 squares, each of four furlongs and a half on each side, or two miles and a quarter in compass. Round these squares, on every side, towards the streets, stood the houses, all of three or four stories in height, beautified with all manner of ornaments; and the space between each of these squares was all void or taken up by yards or gardens, and the like, either for pleasure or convenience.

A branch of the Euphrates divided the city into two, running in the midst of it from north to south, over which, in the very middle of the city, was a bridge, a furlong in length, or rather more, and indeed much more if we hearken to others, who say it was no less than five stades or furlongs in length, though but 30 feet broad, a difference we shall never be able to decide. This bridge, however, is said to have been built with wonderful art, to supply a defect in the bottom of the river, which was all sandy. At each end of this bridge were two palaces; the old palace on the east side, the new one on the west side of the river; the former of which took up four of the squares above

mentioned and the latter nine. The temple of Belus, which stood next to the old palace, took up another of the same squares.

The whole city stood in a large flat or plain, in a very fat and deep soil: that part or half of it on the east side of the river was the old city, and the other on the west was added by Nebuchadnezzar, both being included within the vast square, bounded by the walls aforesaid. The form of the whole was seemingly borrowed from Nineveh, which was also 480 furlongs; but though it was equal in dimensions to this city, it was less with respect to its form, which was parallelogram; whereas that of Babylon was an exact square. It is supposed that Nebuchadnezzar, who had destroyed that old seat of the Assyrian empire, proposed that this new one should rather exceed it; and that it was in order to fill it with inhabitants that he transported such numbers of captives from other countries hither; though that is what may be disputed, seeing he therein only followed the constant practice of the kings of Assyria, who thought this the most certain means of assuring the conquests either to themselves or their posterity.

But it plainly appears that it was never wholly inhabited, so that even in the meridian of its glory, it may be compared with the flower of the field, which flourishes to-day, and to-morrow is no more. It never had time to grow up to what Nebuchadnezzar visibly intended to have made it; for Cyrus removing the seat of the empire soon after to Shushan, Babylon fell by degrees to utter decay; yet it must be owned that no country was better able to support so vast and populous a city, had it been completed up to its first design. But so far was it from being finished, according to its first design, that when Alexander came to Babylon, Q. Curtius tells us no more than 90 furlongs of it were then built; which can be no otherwise understood than of so much in length: and if we allow the breadth to be as much as the length (which is the utmost that can be allowed), it will follow that no more than 8100 square furlongs were then built upon: but the whole space within the walls contained 14,400 square furlongs; and therefore there must have been 6300 square furlongs then remaining unbuilt, which Curtius tells us were ploughed and sown. And besides this the houses were not contiguous, but all built with a void space on each side between house and house.

The next great work of Nebuchadnezzar was the temple of Belus: the wonderful tower, however, that stood in the middle of it, was not his work, but was built many ages before; that and the famous tower of Babel being, as is commonly supposed, one and the same structure. This tower is said to have been composed of eight pyramidal ones, raised above one another, and by Herodotus said to have been a furlong in height; but as there is an ambiguity in his expression, it has been disputed whether each of the towers was a furlong in length, or the whole of them taken together. On the latter supposition, which is the most probable, this tower must have exceeded the highest of the Egyptian pyramids by 179 feet, though it fell short of its breadth at the basis by 33. The way to go up was by stairs, on the outside, round it; and this made the appearance of eight towers, one above the other. Till the time of Nebuchadnezzar it is thought this tower was all the temple of Belus; but as he did by all the other antient buildings of the city so he did by this, making great addition thereto by vast edifices erected round it in a square of two furlongs on every side, and just a mile in circumference, which exceeded the square at

the temple of Jerusalem by 1800 feet. On the outside of these buildings was a wall, which inclosed the whole; and in consideration of the regularity wherewith this city was, to all appearance marked out, it is supposed that this wall was equal to the square of the city wherein it stood, and so is concluded to have been two miles and a half in circumference. In this wall was several gates, leading into the temple, and all of solid brass; which is thought may have been made out of the brazen sea, and brazen pillars, and other vessels and ornaments of the kind, which Nebuchadnezzar had transported from Jerusalem; for in this temple he is said to have dedicated his spoils from that of Jerusalem.

In this temple were several images or idols, of massy gold, and one of them 40 feet in height; the same, as supposed, with that which Nebuchadnezzar consecrated in the plains of Dura; for though this last is said to have been 60 cubits or 90 feet high, these dimensions appear so incredible that it has been attempted to reconcile them into one, by supposing that in the 90 feet height the pedestal is included, and that the 40 feet are for the height of the statue without the pedestal; and being said to have weighed 1000 talents of Babylon, it is thence computed that it was worth 3,500,000*l.* of our money. In a word, the whole weight of the statues and decorations, in Diodorus Siculus, amounting to 5000 and odd talents in gold, the whole is estimated at above 21,000,000*l.* of our money; and a sum about equal to the same in treasure, utensils, and ornaments, not mentioned, is allowed for.

Next to this temple, on the east side of the river, stood the old palace of the king of Babylon, being four miles in circumference. Exactly opposite to it, on the other side of the river, was the new palace, built by Nebuchadnezzar, eight miles in circumference, and consequently four times as big as the old one.

But nothing was more wonderful at Babylon than the hanging gardens, which Nebuchadnezzar made in complaisance to his wife Amyte; who, being a Mede, and retaining strong inclination for the mountains and forests of her own country, was desirous of having something like them at Babylon. They are said to have contained a square of four plethra, or 400 feet on each side; and to have consisted of terraces, one above another, carried up to the height of the wall of the city; the ascent from terrace to terrace being by steps, ten feet wide. The whole pile consisted of substantial arches upon arches, and was strengthened by a wall, surrounding it on every side, 22 feet thick; and the floors on each of them were laid in this order; first, on the tops of the arches was laid a bed or pavement of stones, 16 feet long and 4 feet broad; over this was a layer of wood, mixed with a great quantity of bitumen; and over this two courses of brick, closely cemented together with plaster, and over all these were thick sheets of lead, and on this the earth or mould of the garden. The floorage was designed to retain the moisture of the mould which was so deep as to give root to the greatest trees, which were planted upon every terrace, together with great variety of other vegetables, pleasing to the eye. Upon the uppermost of these terraces was a reservoir, supplied by a certain engine with water from the river, from which the gardens on the other terraces were supplied.

The other works attributed to Nebuchadnezzar by Berosus and Abydenus were the banks of the river, the artificial canals, and the great artificial lake, said to have been sunk by Semiramis. The canals were cut out by the east side of the Euphrates, to convey the

water of the river when it overflowed its banks into the Tigris, before they reached Babylon. The lake was on the west side of Babylon; and, according to the lowest computation, 40 miles square, 160 in compass, and in depth 35 feet, as we read in Herodotus, or 75 as Megasthenes will have it; the former, perhaps, measured from the surface of the sides, and the latter from the tops of the banks that were cast up upon them. This lake was dug to receive the waters of the river, while the banks were building on each side of it. But both the lake and the canal which led to it were preserved after that lake was completed, being found of great use, not only to prevent all overflowings, but to keep water all the year, as in a common reservoir, to be let out on proper occasions by sluices, for the improvement of the land.

The banks were built of brick and bitumen on both sides of the river, to keep it within its channel; and extended on each side throughout the whole length of the city, and even farther, according to some, who reckoned they extended 160 furlongs, or 20 miles; whence it is concluded they must have begun two miles and a half above the city, and have been continued an equal distance below it, the length of the city being no more than 15 miles. Within the city they were built from the bottom of the river, and of the same thickness with the walls of the city itself. Opposite to each street, on either side of the river, was a brazen gate, in the said wall, with stairs leading down from it to the river: these gates were open by day and shut by night.

Berosus, Megasthenes, and Abydenus attribute all these works to Nebuchadnezzar; but Herodotus tells us the bridge, the banks, and the lake were the work of a queen after him, called Nitocris, who may have finished what Nebuchadnezzar left imperfect, and thence they have had the honour this historian gives her of the whole.

As Babylon was thus strongly fortified, Cyrus, when he had defeated the Chaldean army, found it no easy matter to reduce it to subjection. Not only were the walls of a prodigious height, but the number of men to defend them was very great, and the place was stored with all sorts of provisions for 20 years. Cyrus, desparing of being able to take such a city by storm, caused a line of circumvallation to be drawn quite round it, with a large and deep ditch, reckoning that if all communication with the country were broke off, the besieged would be obliged to surrender through famine. That his troops might not be too much fatigued, he divided his army into twelve bodies, appointing each body its month to guard the trenches; but the besieged looking upon themselves to be out of all danger, by reason of their high walls and magazines, insulted him from the ramparts, and looked upon all the trouble he gave himself as so much unprofitable labour.

After Cyrus had spent two whole years before Babylon without making any progress in the siege, he at last thought of the following stratagem, which put him in possession of it. He was informed that a great annual solemnity was to be held at Babylon; and that the inhabitants, on that occasion, were accustomed to spend the whole night in drinking and debauchery: this he therefore thought a proper time for surprising them; and accordingly sent a strong detachment to the head of the canal leading to the great lake, with orders at a certain time to break down the dam which was between the lake and the canal, and to turn the whole current into the lake. At the same time he appointed one body of troops at the place where the river entered the city, and another where it came out; ordering them to march in by the bed of the river as soon as they should find it fordable.

Towards the evening he opened the head of the trenches on both sides the river, above the city, that the water might discharge itself into them; by which means, and the breaking down of the great dam, the river was soon drained. Then the two above-mentioned bodies of troops, according to their orders, entered the channel; the one commanded by Gobryas and the other by Gadates; and finding the gates all left open, by reason of the disorders of that riotous night, they penetrated into the very heart of the city without opposition; and meeting, according to agreement, at the palace, they surprised the guards, and cut them in pieces; those who were in the palace opening the gates to know the cause of this confusion, the Persians rushed in, took the palace, and killed the king, who came out to meet them sword in hand. Thus an end was put to the Babylonian empire; and Cyrus took possession of Babylon for one called in Scripture Darius the Mede, most probably Cyaxares II. uncle to Cyrus.

Among the other conquests which were atchieved by Cyrus was that of Lydia, a kingdom which had extended its influence over the Grecian states in Asia Minor. Lydia was at this time governed by a king, named Crœsus, who had been distinguished by the uninterrupted felicity of the former part of his life. He was much attached to the religion and learning of the Greeks, and entertained such of their sages as visited his court with the utmost hospitality. Solon, the Athenian law-giver, having left his own country that he might discover how far his institutions would be regarded during his absence, in the course of his tour waited upon the munificent monarch. Crœsus first showed him his treasures. After all had been displayed to the best advantage, he complimented Solon upon his curiosity and love of knowledge; and asked him, as a man who had seen many countries, and reflected with much judgment upon what he had seen, Whom, of all men, he esteemed most happy? By the particular occasion as well as the triumphant air with which the question was proposed, the king made it evident that he expected flattery rather than information. But Solon's character had not been enervated by the debilitating air of a court; and he replied, with manly freedom, "Tellus the Athenian." Crœsus, who had scarcely learned to distinguish, even in imagination, between wealth and happiness, inquired, with a tone of surprise, Why this preference to Tellus? "Tellus" rejoined Solon, "was not conspicuous for his riches or his grandeur, being only a simple citizen of Athens; but he was descended from parents who deserved the first honours of the republic. He was equally fortunate in his children, who obtained universal esteem by their probity, patriotism, and every useful quality of the mind or body: and as to himself, he died fighting gallantly in the service of his country, which his valour rendered victorious in a doubtful combat; on which account the Athenians buried him on the spot where he fell, and distinguished him by every honour which public gratitude can confer on illustrious merit."

Crœsus had little encouragement after this answer to ask Solon in the second place, Whom next to Tellus he deemed most happy? Such, however, is the allusion of vanity, that he still ventured to make this demand; and still, as we are informed by the most circumstantial of historians, entertained hopes of being favourably answered. But Solon replied, with the same freedom as before, "The brothers Cleobis and Biton; two youths of Argos, whose strength and address was crowned with repeated victory at the Olympic games, who deserved the affection of their parents, the gratitude of their country, the

admiration of Greece; and who, having ended their lives with peculiar felicity, were commemorated by the most signal monuments of immortal fame." "*And is the happiness of a king then*" *said Crœsus,* "*so little regarded, O Grecian stranger! that you prefer to it the mean* condition of an Athenian or Argive citizen?" The reply of Solon sufficiently justified his reputation for wisdom. "The life of man" says he, "consists of 70 years, which make 25,550 days; an immense number: yet, in the longest life, the events of any one day will not be found exactly alike to those of another. The affairs of men are liable to perpetual vicissitudes; the Divinity who presides over our fate is envious of too much prosperity; and all human life, if not condemned to calamity, is at least liable to accident. Whoever has uninterruptedly enjoyed a prosperous tide of success may justly be called fortunate: but he cannot, before his death, be entitled happy."

After Crœsus had been defeated by Cyrus, that Persian conqueror ordered a pile of wood to be erected, that the unhappy prince might be burned alive. In this state of intolerable adversity he recollected his memorable conversation with the Athenian sage, and uttered, with a deep groan, the name of Solon. Cyrus asked, by an interpreter, Whose name he invoked? "His" replied Crœsus, emboldened by the prospect of certain death, "whose words ought ever to speak to the heart of kings." This reply not being satisfactory, he was commanded to explain at full length the subject of his thoughts. Accordingly he related the important discourse which had passed between himself and the Athenian, of which it was the great moral, That no man could be happy till his death.

The words of a dying man are fitted to make a strong impression on the heart: those of Crœsus deeply affected the mind of Cyrus: the Persian considered the speech of Solon as addressed to himself. He repented of his intended cruelty towards an unfortunate prince, who had formerly enjoyed all the pomp of prosperity; and dreaded the concealed vengeance that might lurk in the bosom of fate, gave orders that the pyre should be extinguished, and from that moment treated him as a friend.

Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, overturned the government of Egypt. This country had been peopled by the descendants of Mezraim, and had early enjoyed the benefits of civilization. The sciences of arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy had here been cultivated with very considerable success, while the pyramids, which are still subsisting, prove that the Egyptians were equal to the erecting the most stupendous buildings. From the few fragments of their antient history, of which we are in possession, they appear to have suffered considerably from three invasions of the shepherds of Nubia, who overturned their government, defiled their temples, and destroyed their cities. At other times they were, however, victorious over their neighbours, especially in the reign of Sesostris and of Pharaoh Necho. In general they seem to have been content with preserving their own tranquillity, and to have employed their chief attention in cultivating the earth, carrying on various arts and manufactures, studying the mathematical and mystical sciences, and celebrating the worship of their numerous gods. Though from superstition averse to navigation, several colonies of Egyptians passed over into Greece, and communicated to its unenlightened inhabitants the maxims of legislation and the fables of their mythology.

Soon after the arrival of the Egyptian colonists, the Greeks began to form a number of small states, the most remarkable of which were the following: in Peloponnesus were those of Sicyon, Argos, and Messenia, Achaia Propria, Arcadia, and Laconia: in Grecia

Propria (that part of Greece which lay without Pelopennesus) were those of Attica, Megara, Bœotia, Locris, Epichnemidia, Doris, Phocis, Locris Ozolœa, and Ætolia: in Epirus were the Molossi, Amphilochi, Cassiopœa, Drœopes, Chaoces, Threspotii, Almeni and Acarnani: in Thessaly were those of Thessaliotes, Estiotis, Pelasgiotis, Magnesia, and Phthia. The most distinguished of these were Laconia, Attica, better known by the names of Sparta and Athens, and Thebes.

The reputation of Sparta was founded upon the singular institutions of Lycurgus, who flourished in the ninth century before Christ, and obtained the confidence of his fellow citizens by the obstinate integrity with which he refused to receive the crown, in prejudice of the right heir. As his principal design was to render the Spartans a nation of soldiers, he commanded the statues of all their deities to be dressed in armour, without excepting that of Venus herself. He allowed no inscription on the tombs of the dead, unless of those who fell in battle, and of women who devoted themselves to a religious life.

Lycurgus divided all the country of Laconia into 30,000 equal shares; the city of Sparta he divided into 9000 as some say, into 6000 as others say, and as a third party will have it into 4500. The intent of the legislator was that the property should be equally divided amongst his citizens; so that none might be powerful enough to oppress his fellows, or any to be in such necessity as to be therefrom in danger of corruption. With the same view he forbade the buying and selling these possessions. If a stranger acquired a right to any of these shares, he might quietly enjoy it, provided he submitted to the laws of the republic. The city of Sparta was unwalled; Lycurgus trusting it rather to the virtue of its citizens than to the art of masons. As to the houses, they were very plain; for their ceilings could only be wrought by the axe, and their gates and doors only by the saw; and their utensils were to be of a like stamp, that luxury might have no instruments among them.

The citizens were to be neither more nor less than the number of city-lots; and if at any time there happened to be more, they were led out in colonies. As to children, their laws were equally harsh and unreasonable; for a father was directed to carry his new-born infant to a certain place, where the gravest men of his tribe looked upon the infant; and if they perceived its limbs straight and thought it had a wholesome look, then they returned it to its parents to be educated; otherwise it was thrown into a deep cavern at the foot of the mountain Taygetus.

It was the care of Lycurgus that, from their very birth, the Lacedemonians should be inured to conquer their appetites; for this reason he directed that nurses should accustom their children to spare meals, and now and then to fasting; that they should carry them, when 12 or 13 years old, to those who should examine their education, and who should carefully observe whether they were able to be in the dark alone, and whether they had got over all other follies and weaknesses incident to children. He directed that children of all ranks should be brought up in the same way; and that none should be more favoured in food than another; that they might not, even in their infancy, perceive any difference between poverty and riches, but consider each other as equals, and even as brethren, to whom the same portions were assigned, and who, through the course of their lives, were to fare alike: the youths alone were allowed to eat flesh; older men ate their black broth and puise; the lads slept together in chambers, and after a manner

somewhat resembling that still in use in Turkey for the Janizaries: their beds in summer were very hard, being composed of reeds, plucked by the hand from the banks of the Eurotas; in winter their beds were softer, but by no means downy, or fit to indulge immoderate sleep. They ate altogether in public; and in case any abstained from coming to the tables they were fined. It was likewise strictly forbidden for any to eat or drink at home before they came to the common meal; even then each had his proper portion, that every thing might be done there with gravity and decency. The black broth was the great rarity of the Spartans, which was composed of salt, vinegar, blood, &c.; so that in our times it would be esteemed a very unsavoury soup. If they were moderate in their eating they were so in their drinking also: thirst was the sole measure thereof; and never any Lacedemonian thought of drinking for pleasure: as for drunkenness, it was both infamous and severely punished; and that young men might perceive the reason, slaves were compelled to drink to excess, that the beastliness of the vice might appear. When they retired from the public meal, they were not allowed any torches or lights, because it was expected that men who were perfectly sober should be able to find their way in the dark; and besides it gave them a facility of marching without light; a thing wonderfully useful to them in time of war.

As the poor ate as well as the rich, so the rich could wear nothing better than the poor: they neither changed their fashion nor the materials of their garments; they were made for warmth and strength, not for gallantry and show: and to this custom even their kings conformed, who wore nothing gaudy in right of their dignity, but were contented that their virtue should distinguish them rather than their clothes. The youths wore a tunic till they were twelve years old; afterwards they had a cloak given them, which was to serve them a year; and their clothing was in general so thin that a Lacedemonian vest became proverbial. Boys were always used to go without shoes; but when they grew up they were indulged with them, if the manner of life they led required it; but they were always inured to run without them, as also to climb up and slip down steep places with bare feet; nay the very shoe they used was of a particular form, plain and strong. Boys were not permitted to wear their hair; but when they arrived at the age of twenty they suffered their hair and beard to grow. Baths and anointing were not much in use among the Lacedemonians; the river Eurotas supplied the former and exercise the latter. In the field, however, their sumptuary laws did not take place so strictly as in the city; for when they went to war they wore purple habits; they put on crowns when they were about to engage the enemy; they had also rings, but they were of iron; which metal was most esteemed by this nation. Lycurgus allowed no money but what was made of iron, totally forbidding the use of gold and silver.

The Athenians had the benefit of three legislators, Theseus, Draco, and Solon. The first of these divided the people into three different orders; nobles, husbandmen, and artificers. The first he invested with power of interpreting and executing the laws, and regulating whatever related to religion. The other two chose their inferior magistrates from among themselves, to take care of whatever related to their separate orders; so that the kingdom was in some measure reduced to a commonwealth, in which the king had the greatest post, the nobles were next to him in honour and authority, the husbandmen had the greatest profit, and the artists exceeded them in number. He likewise abolished

all their distinct courts of judicature, and built one common council-hall, called Prytaneum, which stood for many ages afterwards.

Draco enacted very severe laws, and is said to have punished every crime with death. Solon is celebrated for the mildness and justice of his institutions, and brought the Athenian constitution to a great degree of Perfection. Athens was governed by nine archons, who possessed the regal dignity, the Areopagus, ten other courts of justice, the senate, and the general assembly. The Areopagus was composed of only such magistrates as had maintained a blameless character while they exercised the office of archon. They held their sittings in the open air, and in the night, and permitted no displays of eloquence to be made before them. They not only punished capital crimes, as murder, poisoning, burning of houses, theft, &c. but struck at the root of them, by arraigning idleness, luxury, and debauchery. Not satisfied with having established good laws, they were extremely careful to see that they were observed. With this view they had divided the city into quarters and the country into cantons. Thus every thing passed under their eyes; nothing escaped them; they were acquainted with the private conduct of every citizen: those who had been guilty of any irregularity were cited before the magistrates, and were reprehended or punished in proportion to their misdemeanor.

The senate consisted at different times of 4, 5, or 600 men, elected from the different tribes. They took the account of magistrates at the expiration of their offices; they directed the provisions made for poor citizens out of the public treasure; they had the superintendency of public prisons, and a power of punishing such as committed acts morally evil, though not prohibited by any law; they had the care likewise of the fleet: and besides all these they had many other branches of authority, which it is not necessary for us to mention.

The general assembly was the last resort, and was composed of all such citizens as were 30 years old and not declared infamous: their meetings were either ordinary or extraordinary: the ordinary were such as were appointed by law; the extraordinary such as necessity required. Of the first there were four in 35 days. In the first assembly they reproved or rejected magistrates, heard proposals for the public good and certain causes. In the second they received petitions and heard every man's judgment on the matters that were before them. In the third they gave audience to foreign ambassadors. The fourth was employed altogether in affairs relating to the gods and their worship. The extraordinary meetings were appointed by the magistrates when occasion required; whereas to the ordinary assemblies the people came of their own accord.

They gave their votes by casting pebbles into certain vessels, which were counted, and it was declared whether the decree of the senate was approved or rejected.

Though the Greeks were more lately civilized than the Asiatic nations, they soon became their superiors both in arts and arms; of the latter of which excellencies they had occasion to exhibit the most extraordinary proofs. Enraged by the interference of the Athenians, in a rebellion of the Ionian Greeks, the king of Persia, Darius Histaspes, dispatched Datis and Artaphernes with a large army, to destroy Athens and Eretria, and bring home their inhabitants slaves. In the latter instance they were soon successful, as the Eretrians were divided by civil dissensions, but they were totally defeated at the

battle of Marathon by 10,000 Athenians and Plateans, under the command of Miltiades, assisted by Aristides, Themistocles, and seven other generals.

A few years after Xerxes invaded Greece, bringing with him, according to the classical historians, not fewer than 1,000,000 soldiers. To oppose this mighty force, Leonidas, king of Sparta, occupied the straits of Thermopylæ with 7000 men, of whom only 300 were his countrymen.

Xerxes, advancing near the straits, was strangely surprised to find that the Greeks were resolved to dispute his passage; for he had always flattered himself that on his approach they would betake themselves to flight, and not attempt to oppose his innumerable forces. However, Xerxes still entertaining some hopes of their flight, waited four days without undertaking any thing, on purpose to give them time to retreat. During this time he used his utmost endeavours to gain and corrupt Leonidas, promising to make him master of all Greece if he would come over to his interest. His offers being rejected with contempt and indignation, the king ordered him, by a herald, to deliver up his arms. Leonidas, in a style, and with a spirit truly laconical, answered, "Come thyself and take them." Xerxes, at this reply, transported with rage, commanded the Medes and Cissians to march against them, take them all alive, and bring them to him in fetters. The Medes, not able to stand the shock of the Greeks, soon betook themselves to flight; and in their room Hydarnes was ordered to advance, with that body which was called Immortal and consisted of 10,000 chosen men: but when these came to close with the Greeks, they succeeded no better than the Medes and Cissians, being obliged to retire with great slaughter. The next day, the Persians, reflecting on the small number of their enemies, and supposing so many of them to be wounded that they could not possibly maintain a second fight, resolved to make another attempt, but could not, by any efforts, make the Greeks give way; on the contrary, they were themselves put to a shameful flight. The valour of the Greeks exerted itself on this occasion in a manner so extraordinary that Xerxes is said to have three times leaped from his throne, apprehending the entire destruction of his army.

Xerxes having lost all hopes of forcing his way through troops that were determined to conquer or die, was extremely perplexed, and doubtful what measures he should take in this posture of affairs, when one Epialtes, in expectation of a great reward, came to him, and discovered a secret passage to the top of the hill, which overlooked and commanded the Spartan forces. The king immediately ordered Hydarnes thither, with his select body of 10,000 Persians; who, marching all night, arrived at break of day, and possessed themselves of that advantageous post.

Leonidas, finding that they were thus betrayed, dismissed all but the Thebans and Thesbians, and prepared to die in defence of his country. Those who staid with him did not feed themselves with any hopes of conquering or escaping, but looked upon Thermopylæ as their grave; and when Leonidas, exhorting them to take some nourishment, said that they should all sup together with Pluto, with one accord they set up a shout of joy, as if they had been invited to a banquet.

Xerxes, after pouring out a libation at the rising of the sun, began to move with the whole body of his army as he had been advised by Epialtes. Upon their approach,

Leonidas advanced to the broadest part of the passage, and fell upon the enemy with such undaunted courage and resolution that the Persian officers were obliged to stand behind the divisions they commanded, in order to prevent the flight of their men. Great numbers of the enemy falling into the sea, were drowned; others were trampled under-foot by their own men, and a great many killed by the Greeks; who, knowing they could not avoid death upon the arrival of those who were advancing to fall upon their rear, exerted their utmost efforts. In this action fell the brave Leonidas; which Abrocomes and Hyperanthes, two of the brothers of Xerxes, observing, advanced with great resolution to sieze his body, and carry it in triumph to Xerxes. But the Lacedemonians, more eager to defend it than their own lives, repulsed the enemy four times, killed both the brothers of Xerxes, with many other commanders of distinction, and rescued the body of their beloved general out of the enemy's hands. But in the mean time the army that was led by the treacherous Epialtes, advancing to attack their rear, they retired to the narrowest part of the passage, and drawing all together, except the Thebans, posted themselves on a rising ground. In this place they made head against the Persians, who poured in upon them on all sides, till at length, not vanquished, but oppressed and overwhelmed by numbers, they all fell, except one, who escaped to Sparta, where he was treated as a coward and traitor to his country; but afterwards made a glorious reparation in the battle of Platæa, where he distinguished himself in an extraordinary manner.

When the news of this event reached Athens, the Athenians, in great distress, applied to the oracle at Delphi; from whence they received at first a very severe answer, threatening them with destruction; but after much humiliation a more favourable one was delivered, in which, probably by the direction of Themistocles, they were promised safety in walls of wood. This was by Themistocles and the greatest part of the citizens interpreted as a command to abandon Athens, and put all their hopes of safety in their fleet. Upon this, the opinion of Themistocles prevailing, the greatest part began to prepare for this embarkation, and had money distributed among them by the council of the Areopagus, to the amount of eight drachms per man: but this not proving sufficient, Themistocles gave out that somebody had stolen the shield of Minerva; under pretence of searching for which, he seized on all the money he could find. Some, however, there were, who refused to embark with the rest, but raised to themselves fortifications of wood, understanding the oracle in its literal sense, and resolving to wait the arrival of the Persians, and defend themselves to the last.

The Persians having advanced to Athens, soon after the inhabitants had deserted it, met with no opposition, except from a few just now mentioned; who, as they would hearken to no terms of accommodation, were all cut in pieces, and the city utterly destroyed. Xerxes, however, being defeated in a sea fight at Salamis, was forced to fly with prodigious loss. Themistocles was for pursuing him, and breaking down the bridge he had cast over the Hellespont, but this advice being rejected, he sent a trusty messenger to Xerxes, acquainting him that the Greeks intended to break down his bridge, and therefore desired him to make all the haste he could, lest, by that means, he should be shut up in Europe. According to Herodotus, he also advised the Athenians to quit the pursuit, and return home, in order to build their ruined houses. This advice, though misinterpreted by some, was certainly a very prudent one, as Xerxes, though once defeated, was still at

the head of an army capable of destroying all Greece; and had he been driven to despair by finding himself shut — or warmly pursued, it was impossible to say what might have been the event.

The defeat of Xerxes at Salamis made Mardonius, who was left to carry on the war by land, more ready to treat with the Athenians than to fight them; and with this view he sent Alexander, king of Macedon, to Athens, to make proposals of alliance with that republic, exclusively of all the other Grecian states. This proposal, however, was rejected; and the consequence was that Athens was a second time destroyed; the Spartans sending assistance so slowly that the Athenians were forced to retire to Salamis; but they were soon freed from all apprehensions by the total defeat and death of Mardonius at Platæa; where Aristides and the body of troops under his command distinguished themselves in a most extraordinary manner.

The same day that the battle of Platæa was fought, the Persians were defeated in a sea-fight at Mycale in Ionia, wherein it was allowed that the Athenians, who were there, behaved better than any of the other Greeks; but when it was proposed to transport the Ionians into Europe, that they might be in perfect safety, and give them the territories of such Grecian states as had sided with the Persians, the Athenians refused to comply, fearing the Ionians would rival them in trade, or refuse the obedience they used to pay them: besides which, they would then lose the opportunity of plundering the Persians, in case of any quarrel with Ionia.

After this danger had been removed, the Athenians rebuilt and fortified their city, began to display their fine taste in arts and literature, and to indulge the more dangerous ambition of reigning in Greece. As the Spartans were little disposed to concede to them this honour, which they themselves claimed by the right of prescription, their mutual jealousy gave rise to the Peloponnesian war, which broke forth 431 years before Christ; and terminated, after a contest of 34 years, in the reduction of Athens.

The city of Thebes is said to have been founded by Cadmus the Phenician, who was probably one of those Canaanites who fled from the arms of Joshua. They were famed in the early period of their history for their martial achievements; but in process of time they seem to have degenerated. At the invasion of Xerxes they were the first people in Greece who were gained over to the Persian interest. On account of this misbehaviour they were become very obnoxious to the other states, especially to the Athenians, whose power and renown increased ever day, and threatened at last to swallow them up altogether. The Thebans being in no condition to oppose such a formidable power, put themselves under the protection of the Spartans, who, out of jealousy of the Athenians, readily forgave them; and so grateful were the Thebans for the kindness shown them at this time, that, during the whole of the Peloponnesian war, Sparta had not a more faithful ally. By these means they not only recovered the government of Bœotia, of which they had been formerly in possession, till deprived of it on account of their siding with the Persians, but their city became one of the first in Greece.

At length the Spartans, breaking all the bounds of moderation, through the treachery of those who had the care of the citadel, changed the form of the Theban government, which was at this time a democracy.

The Thebans continued under the power of the Spartans for four years; at the end of

which term, a conspiracy being formed against them by some of the principal people in the city, among whom was a young nobleman, named Pelopidas, the Spartans were massacred and driven out, and the citadel regained. During the tumult, Epaminondas, afterwards the celebrated general, with a number of the best citizens, joined the party of Pelopidas; and the latter, having called a general assembly of the Thebans, proclaimed liberty to them, and exhorted them, in the strongest manner, to fight for their country. This speech was received with the greatest acclamations; Pelopidas was unanimously proclaimed the preserver of Thebes, and was charged with the management of the war, which was then to be declared against Sparta.

These transactions produced a war with Sparta, in which the Thebans were completely victorious. Encouraged by their successes, they began to think of enlarging their territories, and of making encroachments on their neighbours, as they saw other states had done before them. This spirit of conquest is said to have been raised by their general Pelopidas; in which he was seconded by Epaminondas, a person, who though, like him, endowed with all the necessary qualities to make a complete captain or patriot, had, till then, preferred a private life, and lived in a constant course of virtue and the study of philosophy. He had as yet seldom appeared in public, except to get himself excused from those state employments which were so eagerly courted by others. This, however, had not hindered him from contracting an intimate friendship with Pelopidas, which had been daily improved by the correspondence of their tempers and principles, as well as by that zeal which both displayed for the good of their country; which last had made them, even before this time, appear together in action, and to such advantage that Epaminondas's merit could be no longer concealed, nor indeed suffer him to continue longer in his beloved retirement; so that he saw himself at length deservedly placed at the head of the Theban troops; where he gave such early proofs of his future prowess and abilities as justly gave him the next rank to Pelopidas.

While these two great men lived the Thebans were abundantly prosperous; but no sooner had they fallen, Pelopidas at the battle of Cynocephala, and Epaminondas at that of Mantinea, than Thebes sunk into a state of insignificance, from which it never recovered.

While the different states of Greece were thus eagerly contending who should be greatest, Philip, king of Macedon, was preparing fetters for them all. The kingdom of Macedon, had been founded by one Caranus, about 800 years before the Christian era. At first it was attended with a considerable degree of prosperity, but after that Cyrus had conquered Lydia, had become dependent on the Persian monarch, had been obliged to assist Xerxes in the invasion of Greece, and after that suffered so severely by the contests of different usurpers, and the inroads of its barbarian neighbours, that at the time when Philip obtained the government it was placed, in all appearance, in the very verge of ruin. Perdiccas, the brother of Philip, had been defeated and slain in a battle with the Illyrians, in which the Macedonians had lost 4000 men. Amyntas, the proper heir to the throne, was an infant; the Thebans, in whom Perdiccas had placed much confidence, were deprived of the sovereignty of Greece; the Athenians, justly provoked at the ungrateful behaviour of the late monarch, showed a hostile disposition; the Illyrians ravaged the west and the Pæonians the north quarter of the kingdom; the Thracians still supported the cause of the usurper Pausanias, and proposed to send him into Macedon

at the head of a numerous army; while Argæas, the former rival of Amyntas, the father of Philip, renewed his pretensions to the throne, and by flattering the Athenians with the hopes of recovering Amphipolis, easily induced them to support his claims; and in consequence of this they fitted out a fleet, having on board 3000 heavy armed soldiers, which they sent to the coast of Macedon.

Philip, the late king's brother, no sooner heard of his defeat and death, than he set out privately from Thebes; and, on his arrival in Macedon, found matters in the situation we have just now described. Fired with an insatiable ambition, it is very probable that from the very first moment he had resolved to seize the kingdom for himself; yet it was necessary at first to pretend that he assumed the throne only to preserve it for his nephew. Philip, as has already been mentioned, was carried off as a hostage by Pelopidas; but for a long time past had remained in such obscurity, that historians disagree as to his place of residence, some placing him in Thebes and others in Macedon. It is certain, however that from the age of 15 he had been very much in the family of Epammondas, from whose lessons he could not but derive the greatest advantage. It is probable, also, that he attended this celebrated general in many of his expeditions; and it is certain, that with an attendance suitable to his rank, he visited most of the principal republics, and showed an attention to their institutions, both civil and military, far superior to his years. Having easy access to whomsoever he pleased, he cultivated the friendship of the first people in Greece. Even in Athens, where no good-will subsisted with Macedon, the philosophers Plato, Isocrates, and Aristotle cultivated his acquaintance; and the connection he formed with the principal leaders of that republic, in the early period of his life, no doubt contributed greatly to the accomplishment of the designs in which he afterwards proved so successful. His appearance in Macedon instantly changed the face of affairs; the Macedonian army, though defeated, was not entirely destroyed; and the remainder of them secured themselves in the fortresses which had been built by Archelaus. There were also considerable garrisons in fortresses, and walled towns scattered over the kingdom; and the Illyrians, who had made war only for the sake of plunder, soon returned home to enjoy the fruits of their victory. His other enemies, the Thracians and Pæonians, were much less formidable than the Illyrians, being still in a very rude and uncivilized state, incapable of uniting under one head, in such a manner as to bring any formidable army into the field. While the Illyrians, therefore, gave up the campaign, through mere caprice and unsteadiness, Philip himself applied to the Pæonians, and by fair promises and flattery prevailed upon them to desist. The king of Thrace, by means of a sum of money, was easily prevailed upon to abandon the cause of Pausanias; so that Philip, freed from these barbarians, was now left at liberty to oppose the Athenians, who supported Argæus, and threatened a very formidable invasion.

The appearance of the Athenian fleet before Methone, with that of Argæus, at the head of a numerous army in Pieria, filled the whole country with consternation; and Philip, who was by no means deficient in talents necessary to recommend himself to the good graces of the people, took the opportunity of getting Amyntas set aside, and himself declared king; for which indeed the danger of the times afforded a very plausible pretext. Argæus, in the mean time, advanced with his Athenian allies towards Edessa or Ægæ, the antient capital of the Macedonian empire, where he hoped to have been amicably received; but

finding the gates shut against him, he returned back to Methone. Philip harassed him in his retreat, cutting off great numbers of his men, and afterwards defeated him in a general engagement; in which Argæus himself, with the flower of his army, were cut in pieces, and all the rest taken prisoners.

The first instance of success contributed greatly to raise the spirits of Philip's party; and he himself took care to improve it in the best manner possible. Having taken a great number of prisoners, both Macedonians and Athenians, he determined, by his treatment of them, to ingratiate himself with both parties. The former were called into his presence, and after a gentle reprimand, admitted to swear allegiance to him; after which they were distributed through the army: the Athenians were entertained at his table, dismissed without ransom, and their baggage restored. The prisoners were just allowed time to return to their native city, and to spread abroad the news of Philip's generosity, when they were followed by ambassadors from Macedon, with proposals for peace. As he knew that the loss of Amphipolis had greatly irritated them, he now thought proper to renounce his jurisdiction over that city; and it was accordingly declared free and independent, and subject only to the government of its own free and equitable laws. This artful conduct, together with his kind treatment of the prisoners, so wrought upon the minds of the Athenians, that they consented to the renewal of a treaty, which had formerly subsisted between them and his father Amyntas. Thus he found means to remove all jealousy of his ambition, or the schemes he might afterwards undertake to their prejudice; and not only this, but to induce them to engage in a ruinous war with their allies; which occupied their attention until Philip had an opportunity of getting his matters so well established that it was impossible to overthrow them.

The new king being thus left at liberty to regulate his domestic concerns, began to circumscribe the power of his chiefs and nobles; who, especially in the more remote provinces, paid very little regard to the authority of the kings of Macedon; sometimes, even in times of public calamity, throwing off their allegiance altogether, and assuming an independent government over considerable tracts of country. To counteract the ambition of these chiefs, Philip chose a body of the bravest Macedonian youths, whom he entertained at his own table, and honoured with many testimonies of his friendship, giving them the title of his companions, and allowing them constantly to attend him in war and hunting. Their intimacy with the sovereign, which was considered as an indication of their merit, obliged them to superior diligence in all the severe duties of military discipline; and the young nobility, eager to participate such high honours, vied with each other in their endeavours to gain admission into this distinguished order; so that, while on the one hand they served as hostages, on the other they formed an useful seminary for future generals, by whom both Philip and Alexander were afterwards greatly assisted in their conquests.

He also either instituted or improved the Macedonian phalanx; a body of 6000 men, armed with short swords, fitted either for cutting or stabbing, having also strong bucklers, four feet long and two and a half broad, and pikes 14 feet long; usually marching 16 men deep.

Having thus put it in his power to execute his projects of ambition, he first subdued the Pæonians and Illyrians, then reduced Amphipolis, and obtained possession of the gold

mines of Thrace. The latter acquisition proved of great importance, as it enabled him to corrupt the priests of Delphi, the council of the Amphictyons, and the orators of Athens.

Delphi was a town of Phocis, situated on the south-west extremity of mount Parnassus. It was famous for a temple and oracle of Apollo, of which the following was said to be the origin: A number of goats, that were feeding on mount Parnassus, came near a place which had a deep and long perforation. The steem which issued from the hole seemed to inspire the goats, and they played and frisked about in such an uncommon manner that the goatherd was tempted to lean on the hole, and see what mysteries the place contained. He was immediately seized with a fit of enthusiasm, his expressions were wild and extravagant, and passed for prophecies. This circumstance was soon known about the country, and many experienced the same enthusiastic inspiration. The place was revered; a temple was soon after erected in honour of Apollo; and a city built, which became the chief and most illustrious in Phocis.

The oracles were delivered by a priestess called Pythia, who received the prophetic influence in the following manner. A lofty tripod, decked with laurel, was placed over the aperture whence the sacred vapour issued. The priestess, after washing her body, and especially her hair, in the cold water of Castalia, mounted on it to receive the divine effluvia. She wore a crown of laurel, and shook a sacred tree which grew near. Sometimes she chewed the leaves, and the frenzy which followed may, with probability be attributed to this usage; and the gentler or more violent symptoms to the quantity taken. When overflowing with the heavenly inspiration, she uttered the confused words irregularly suggested by the impulse of the god; the Delphians collected these sounds, reduced them into order, animated them with sense, and adorned them with harmony. The Pythia, appointed and dismissed at pleasure, was a mere instrument in the hands of those artful ministers, whose character became so venerable and sacred, that they were finally regarded, not merely as attendants and worshippers, but as the peculiar family of the god. Their number was considerable and never exactly ascertained, since all the principal inhabitants of Delphi, claiming an immediate relation to Apollo, were entitled to officiate in the rites of his sanctuary; and even the inferior ranks belonging to that sacred city were continually employed in dances, festivals, processions, and in displaying all the gay pageantry of an airy and elegant superstition.

The council of the Amphictyons consisted of two deputies from each of those states of Greece who considered themselves as guardians of Delphi. They not only consulted on every thing which respected the rites of Apollo, but debated, in various instances, concerning the public affairs of Greece.

The Phocians having ploughed up some of the ground that was consecrated to Apollo, those states which were in the interest of the Amphictyons took up arms to chastise them; while the Athenians, Spartans, and Achæans fought in their defence. Philip joined the Amphictyons, passed the straits of Thermopilæ, and so terrified the Phocians that they surrendered at discretion. To punish them they were deprived of their double vote in the council of the Amphictyons, which was given to Philip as a reward for his assistance.

In the mean time he reduced, one after another, many of the colonies of the Athenians, while he endeavoured to persuade them that his intentions were perfectly friendly. Though their great orator Demosthenes exerted his amazing powers of eloquence to excite his

countrymen to the defence of their liberties, yet so great was the degeneracy that prevailed at Athens, that Philip found no difficulty to make a party in that city, who were ready to accede to his wishes. He procured Æschines to be elected one of the council of the Amphictyons, and though this seemed a small matter, it proved the hinge on which all his project turned. By that time Æschines had taken his seat, a question was stirred in the council, whether the Locrians of the Amphisia had not been guilty of sacrilege in plowing the fields of Cyrrha, in the neigbourhood of the temple of Delphi. The assembly being divided in their opinions, Æschines proposed to take a view; which was accordingly decreed. But when the Amphictyons came, in order to see how things stood, the Locrians, either jealous of their property, or spurred thereto by the suggestions of some who saw farther than themselves, fell upon those venerable persons so rudely that they were compelled to secure themselves by flight. The Amphictyons decreed that an army should be raised, under the command of one of their own number, to chastise the delinquents; but as this army was to be composed of troops sent from all parts of Greece, the appearance at the rendezvous was so inconsiderable, that the Amphictyons sent to command them durst undertake nothing. The whole matter being reported to the council, Æschines, in a long and eloquent harangue, showed how much the welfare and even the safety of Greece depended on the deference paid to their decrees; and after inveighing against the want of public spirit in such as had not sent their quotas at the time appointed by the council, he moved that they should elect Philip for their general, and pray him to execute their decree. The deputies from the other states, conceiving that, by this expedient, their respective constituents would be free from any farther trouble or expence, came into it at once; whereupon a decree was immediately drawn up, purporting that ambassadors should be sent to Philip of Macedon, in the name of Apollo and the Amphictyons, once more to require his assistance, and to notify to him that the states of Greece had unanimously chosen him their general, with full power to act, as he thought fit, against such as had opposed the authority of the Amphictyons. Thus, of a sudden, Philip acquired all that he sought; and having an army ready, in expectation of this event, he immediately marched to execute the commands of the Amphictyons in appearance, but in reality to accomplish his own designs. For having passed into Greece with his army, instead of attacking the Locrians, he seized immediately upon Elatea, a great city of Phocis, upon the river Cephisus.

The Athenians, in the mean time, were in the utmost confusion on the news of Philip's march. However, by the advice of Demosthenes, they invited the Thebans to join them against the common enemy of Greece. Philip endeavoured as much as possible to prevent this confederacy from taking place; but all his efforts proved ineffectual. The Athenians raised an army, which marched immediately to Elusis, where they were joined by the Thebans. The confederates made the best appearance that had ever been seen in Greece, and the troops were exceedingly good; but unfortunately the generals were men of no conduct or skill in the military art. An engagement ensued at Cheronæa; wherein Alexander commanded one wing of the Macedonian army, and his father Philip the other. The confederate army was divided according to the different nations of which it consisted; the Athenians having the right and the Bœotians the left. In the beginning of the battle the confederates had the better; whereupon Stratocles, an Athenian commander, cried

out, "Come on, brother soldiers, let us drive them back to Macedon;" which being overheard by the king, he said very coolly to one of his officers, "These Athenians do not know how to conquer." Upon this he directed the files of the phalanx to be straitened; and drawing his men up very close, retired to a neighbouring eminence, from whence the Athenians were eager in their pursuit; he rushed down with impetuosity, broke and routed them with prodigious slaughter. The orator Demosthenes behaved very unbecomingly in this engagement; for he deserted his post, and was one of the first that fled; nay we are told that a stake catching hold of his robe, he, not doubting but it was an enemy, cried out, "Alas! spare my life."

This victory determined the fate of Greece, and made Philip supreme lord of that country. The first use he made of his power was to convoke a general assembly, wherein he was recognised generalissimo, and with full power appointed their leader against the Persians. Having, by virtue of his authority, settled a general peace among them, and appointed the quota that each of the states should furnish for the war, he dismissed them, and returning to Macedon, began to make great preparations for this new expedition.

While, however, he was making preparations for this purpose, he was assassinated in the theatre, and succeeded by his son Alexander. Alexander found the affairs of Macedon in a very distracted state, but was soon able to quell all their civil commotions, defeat the neighbouring barbarians, and compel the cities of Greece to seek his friendship. The Thebans having neglected to deprecate his vengeance, he took their city by storm, and caused the inhabitants to be for some hours massacred, without distinction of age or sex, after which the houses were demolished, all except that of Pindar, the famous poet, which was spared in respect to the merit of its owner, and because he had celebrated Alexander I. king of Macedon. The lands, excepting those destined to religious uses, were shared among the soldiers, and all the prisoners sold for slaves; by which 440 talents were brought into the king's treasury.

Having thus settled his affairs, he embarked for the conquest of Persia, with an army of 30,000 foot and 5000 horse. When he drew near the shore of Asia, he lanched a javelin, which stuck in the earth; then, in complete armour, he leaped upon the strand; and having erected altars to Jupiter, Minerva, and Hercules, he proceeded to Ilium. Here again he sacrificed to Minerva; and taking down some arms, which had hung in the temple of that goddess since the time of the Trojan war, consecrated his own in their stead. He sacrificed also to the ghost of Priam, to avert his wrath, on account of the descent which he himself claimed from Achilles.

In the mean time the Persians had assembled a great army in Phrygia; among the commanders of which was one Memnon, a Rhodian, the best officer in the service of Darius. Alexander, as soon as he had performed all the ceremonies which he judged necessary, marched directly towards the enemy; Memnon gave it as his opinion that they should burn and destroy all the country round, that they might deprive the Greeks of the means of subsisting, and then transport a part of their army into Macedon. But the Persians, depending on their cavalry, rejected this salutary advice, and posted themselves along the river Granicus, in order to wait the arrival of Alexander. In the engagement which happened on the banks of that river, the Persians were defeated, and Alexander became master of all the neighbouring country, which he began to take care of as if it had been

part of his hereditary dominions. The city of Sardis was immediately delivered up; and here Alexander built a temple to Jupiter Olympius. After this he restored the Ephesians to their liberty; ordered the tribute which they formerly paid to the Persians to be applied towards the rebuilding of the magnificent temple of Diana; and having settled the affairs of the city, marched against Atiletus. This place was defended by Memnon with a considerable body of troops, who had fled thither after the battle of Granicus, and therefore made a vigorous resistance. The fortune of Alexander, however, prevailed, and the city was soon reduced, though Memnon, with part of the troops, escaped to Halicarnassus. After this the king dismissed his fleet, for which various reasons have been asssigned, though it is probable that the chief one was to show his army that their only resource now was in subverting the Persian empire.

Almost all the cities between Miletus and Halicarnassus submitted as soon as they heard that the former was taken; but Halicarnassus, where Memnon commanded with a very numerous garrison, made an obstinate defence. Nothing, however, was able to resist the Macedonian army; Memnon was at last obliged to abandon the place; upon which Alexander took and razed the city of Tralles in Phrygia, received the submission of several princes tributary to the Persians, and having destroyed the Marmarians, a people of Lycia, who had fallen upon the rear of his army, put an end to the campaign.

As soon as the season would permit, he marched to Perga, and thence to Cicilia, where he received information of the approach of the Persians, whom he met at Issus, under the command of Darius, and defeated with great slaughter. The consequences of this victory were very advantageous to the Macedonians. Many governors of provinces and petty princes submitted themselves to the conqueror; and such as did so were treated not as a newly conquered people, but as his old hereditary subjects; being neither burthened with soldiers nor oppressed with tribute. Among the number of those places which, within a short space after the battle of Issus, sent deputies to submit to the conqueror, was the city of Tyre. The king, whose name was Azelmicus, was absent in the Persian fleet; but his son was among the deputies, and was favourably received by Alexander. The king probably intended to confer particular honours on the city of Tyre, for he acquainted the inhabitants that he would come and sacrifice to the Tyrian Hercules, the patron of their city, to whom they had erected a most magnificent temple. But these people, like most other trading nations, were too suspicious to think of admitting such an enterprising prince, with his troops, within their walls. They sent, therefore, their deputies again to him, to inform him that they were ready to do whatever he should command them; but as to his coming and sacrificing in their city, they could not consent to that, but were positively determined not to admit a single Macedonian within their gates. Alexander immediately dismissed their deputies in great displeasure. He then assembled a council of war, wherein he insisted strongly on the disaffected state of Greece, (for most of the Grecian states had sent ambassadors to Darius, to enter into a league with him against the Macedonians) the power of the Persians by sea, and the folly of carrying on the war in distant provinces, while Tyre was left unreduced behind them: he also remarked, that if once this city was subdued, the sovereignty of the sea would be transferred to them, because it would fix their possession of the coasts; and as the Persian fleet was composed chiefly of tributary squadrons, those tributaries would fight the battles not of their late

but of their present masters. For these reasons the siege of Tyre was resolved on. The town was not taken, however, without great difficulty; which provoked Alexander to such a degree that he treated the inhabitants with the greatest cruelty.

Thus perished the power of the Phœnicians, the most commercial people of all antiquity. They affected no empire but that of the sea; and seemed to aim at nothing but the peaceable enjoyment of their trade. This they extended to all the known parts they could reach; to the British isles, commonly understood by the Cassiterides, to Spain and other places in the ocean, both within and without the straits of Gibralter; and in general to all the ports of the Mediterranean, the Black sea, and the lake Mæotis. In all these parts they had settlements and correspondents, from which they drew what was useful to themselves, or might be so to others; and thus they exercised the three great branches of trade, as it is commonly divided into importation, exportation, and transportation, in full latitude. Such was their sea-trade; and for that which they carried on by land, in Syria, Mesopotamia, Assyria, Babylonia, Persia, Arabia, and even in India, it was of no less extent, and may give us an idea of what this people once was, how rich and how deservedly their merchants are mentioned in Scripture, as equal to princes. Their country was at that time the great warehouse, where every thing that might either administer to the necessities or luxury of mankind was to be found; which they distributed as they judged would be best for their own interest. The purple of Tyre, the glass of Sidon, and the exceeding fine linen made in this country, together with other curious pieces of art, in metals and wood, already mentioned, appear to have been the chief and almost only commodities of Phœnice itself. Indeed their territory was so small that it is not to be imagined they could afford to export any of their own growth; it is more likely that they rather wanted than abounded with the fruits of the earth.

After the reduction of Tyre, Alexander, though the season was already far advanced, determined to make an expedition into Syria, and in his way thither proposed to chastise the Jews, who had highly offended him during the siege of Tyre; for when he sent to them to demand provisions for his soldiers, they answered, that they were the subjects of Darius, and bound by oath not to supply his enemies. The king, however, was pacified by their submission; and not only pardoned them, but conferred many privileges upon them.

From Jerusalem Alexander marched directly to Gaza, the only place in that part of the world which still held out for Darius. This was a very large and very strong city, situated on a high hill, about five miles from the sea-shore. One Batis or Betis, an eunuch, had the government of the place; and had made every preparation necessary for sustaining a long and obstinate siege. The governor defended the place with great valour, and several times repulsed his enemies: but at last it was taken by storm, and all the garrison slain to a man; and this secured to Alexander an entrance into Egypt, which having before been very impatient of the Persian yoke, admitted the Macedonians peaceably.

Here the king laid the foundations of the city of Alexandria, which, for many years after, continued to be the capital of the country. While he remained here, he also formed the extraordinary design of visiting the temple of Jupiter Ammon. As to the motives by which he was induced to take this extraordinary journey authors are not agreed: but certain it is that he hazarded himself and his troops in the highest degree; there being

two dangers in this march, which, with the example of Cambyses, who lost the greatest part of his army in it, might have terrified any body but Alexander. The first was the want of water, which, in the sandy deserts surrounding the temple, is no where to be found; the other the uncertainty of the road, from the fluctuation of the sands, which, changing their situation every moment, leave the traveller no road to walk in nor mark to march by. These difficulties, however, Alexander got over, though not without a miraculous interposition, as is pretended by all historians.

Alexander having consulted the oracle and received a favourable answer, returned to pursue his conquests. Having settled the government of Egypt, he appointed the general rendezvous of his forces at Tyre. Here he met with ambassadors from Athens, requesting him to pardon such of their countrymen as he found serving the enemy. The king being desirous to oblige such a famous state, granted their request, and sent also a fleet to the coast of Greece, to prevent the effects of some commotions, which had lately happened in Peloponnesus. He then directed his march to Thapsacus; and having passed the Euphrates and Tigris, met with Darius near Arbela, where the Persians were again overthrown with prodigious slaughter, and Alexander in effect became master of the Persian empire.

After this important victory Alexander marched directly to Babylon, which was immediately delivered up; the inhabitants being greatly disaffected to the Persian interest. After 30 days stay in this country the king marched to Susa, which had already surrendered to Philoxenus; and here he received the treasures of the Persian monarch, amounting, according to the most generally received account, to 50,000 talents. Having received also at this time a supply of 6000 foot and 500 horse from Macedon, he set about reducing the nations of Media, among whom Darius was retired. He first reduced the Uxians; and having forced a passage to Persepolis, the capital of the empire, he, like a barbarian, destroyed the stately palace there, a pile of building not to be equalled in any part of the world; after having given up the city to be plundered by his soldiers. In the palace he found 120,000 talents, which he appropriated to his own use, and caused immediately to be carried away upon mules and camels; for he had such an extreme aversion to the inhabitants of Persepolis, that he determined to leave nothing valuable in the city.

The various events which followed, till the death of Alexander, have been already related. Immediately upon the decease of that celebrated man his empire fell in pieces, and such cruel contentions succeeded that all his family as well as his generals came to untimely ends. His territories were finally divided into four kingdoms, that of Antipater in Macedon, Lysimachus in Thrace, Seleucus in Syria, and Ptolemy in Egypt. The Macedonian kings were a race of weak and wicked princes, who, by means of the discipline already established in their armies, were able to make head against the kings of Epirus and the free states of Greece, but sunk under the power of the Romans in the year 168 before Christ.

The Greeks, after the days of Alexander, became very degenerate, and many of their cities fell into the hands of tyrants; but they still made some pretensions to liberty, chiefly through the assistance of the Achean league. The Achean commonwealth consisted of 12 inconsiderable towns in Peloponnesus. Its first annals are not marked by any great action, for they are not graced with one eminent character. After the death of Alexander

this little republic was a prey to all the evils which flow from political discord. A zeal for the good of the community was now extinguished. Each town was only attentive to its private interest: there was no longer any stability in the state; for it changed its masters with every revolution in Macedonia. Towards the 124th Olympiad, about the time when Ptolemy Soter died, and when Pyrrhus invaded Italy, the republic of the Achæans recovered its old institutions and unanimity. The inhabitants of Patæ and of Dynæ were the first asserters of antient liberty: the tyrants were banished, and the towns again made one commonwealth. A public council was then held, in which affairs of importance were discussed and determined. A register was appointed to record the transactions of the council. This assembly had two presidents, who were nominated alternately by the different towns. But instead of two presidents they soon elected but one. Many neighbouring towns, which admired the constitution of this republic, founded on equality, liberty, the love of justice, and of the public good, were incorporated with the Achæans, and admitted to the full enjoyment of their laws and privileges. The arms which the Achæans chiefly used were slings; they were trained to the art from their infancy, by slinging, from a great distance, at a circular mark, of a moderate circumference. By long practice they took so nice an aim that they were not only able to hit their enemies on the head, but on any part of the face they chose. Their slings were of a different kind from those of the Balearians, whom they far surpassed in dexterity.

The two greatest men which this republic produced were Aratus and Philopœmen; the former of whom chiefly depended on foreign assistance, the latter on the discipline of his countrymen. He was equally distinguished by his valour and his disinterestedness, and was justly denominated the last of the Greeks. He died of poison, in the same year as proved fatal to Hannibal and Scipio.

The ruin of Greece was at length completed by the taking of Corinth, which, in the year before Christ 146, was pillaged and burnt by the Romans. It was at that time the strongest place in the world; but the inhabitants were so disheartened by a preceding defeat and the death of their general, that they had not presence of mind enough even to shut their gates. The Roman consul, Mummius, was so much surprised at this, that at first he could scarce believe it; but afterwards, fearing an ambuscade, he advanced with all possible caution. As he met with no resistance, his soldiers had nothing to do but destroy the few inhabitants that had not fled, and plunder the city; such of the men as had staid were all put to the sword, and the women were sold for slaves. After this the city was ransacked by the greedy soldiers, and the spoils of it are said to have been immense. There were more vessels of all sorts of metal, more fine pictures and statues, done by the greatest masters in Corinth, than in any other city in the world. All the princes of Europe and Asia, who had any taste in painting and sculpture, furnished themselves here with their richest moveables: here were cast the fine statues for temples and palaces, and all the liberal arts brought to their greatest perfection.

When the city was thoroughly pillaged, fire was set to all the corners of it at the same time. The flames grew more violent as they drew near the centre, and at last, uniting there, made one prodigious conflagration. At this time the famous metalline mixture is said to have been made, which could never afterwards be imitated by art. The gold, silver, and brass, which the Corinthians had concealed, were melted, and ran down the

streets in streams; and when the flames were extinguished, a new metal was found, composed of several different ones, greatly esteemed in after ages.

Seleucus, who founded the kingdom of Syria, conquered Lysimachus at the battle of Curopedion, and was the last survivor of Alexander's captains. His successors were called Selucidæ, and laid claim to all the Asiatic provinces of the Macedonian empire, but were frequently obliged to relinquish Palestine to the Ptolemies of Egypt, and were never able to subdue the kingdoms of Pergamos, Bithynia, Paphlagonia, Cappadocia, Pontus, Armenia, Bactria, Parthia, and India, which were erected within the limit of their assumed dominion. One of the most distinguished of these princes was Antiochus the Great, who, in the latter part of his reign, brought upon himself the Roman arms. After many mistakes and much misconduct, he attempted to obtain a peace, by offering to quit all his places in Europe and such in Asia as professed alliance to Rome. But it was now too late; Scipio, perceiving his own superiority, was resolved to avail himself of it. Antiochus, thus driven into resistance, for some time retreated before the enemy; till being pressed hard near the city of Magnesia, he was forced to draw out his men, to the number of 70,000 foot and 12,000 horse. Scipio opposed him with forces as much inferior in number as they were superior in courage and discipline. Antiochus was therefore in a short time entirely defeated; his own chariots, armed with scythes, being driven back upon his men, contributed much to his overthrow. Being thus reduced to the last extremity, he was glad to procure peace from the Romans upon their own terms; which were, to pay 15,000 talents, to quit his possessions in Europe, and in Asia on the hither side mount Taurus; to give 20 hostages as pledges of his fidelity; and to deliver up Hannibal, the inveterate enemy of Rome, who had taken refuge at his court.

Antiochus Epiphanes, the succeeding king, is chiefly distinguished for his transactions with the Jewish nation. Having resolved to take vengeance on that people, who had much degenerated from the piety of their fathers, he, about the year 168 before Christ, dispatched Apollonius, at the head of 22,000 men, with orders to plunder all the cities of Judea, to murder all the men, and sell the women and children for slaves. Apollonius accordingly came with his army, and, to outward appearance, with a peaceable intention: neither was he suspected by the Jews, as he was superintendent of the tribute in Palestine. He kept himself inactive till the next sabbath, when they were all in a profound quiet: and then, on a sudden, commanded his men to arms. Some of them he sent to the temple and synagogues, with orders to cut in pieces all whom they found there; whilst the rest, going through the streets of the city, massacred all that came in their way; the superstitious Jews not attempting to make the least resistance, for fear of breaking the sabbath. He next ordered the city to be plundered and set on fire, pulled down all their stately buildings, caused the walls to be demolished, and carried away captive about 10,000 of those who had escaped their slaughter. From that time the service of the temple was totally abandoned; that place having been quite polluted both with the blood of multitudes who had been killed, and in various other ways. The Syrian troops built a large fortress on an eminence in the city of David; fortified it with a strong wall and stately towers, and put a garrison in it to command the temple, over against which it was built; so that the soldiers could easily see and sally out upon all those who attempted to come into the temple; so many of whom were continually murdered and plundered by them.

that the rest, not daring to stay any longer in Jerusalem, fled for refuge to the neighbouring nations.

Antiochus, not yet satiated with the blood of the Jews, resolved either totally to abolish their religion or destroy their whole race. He therefore issued out a decree, that all nations within his dominions should forsake their old religion and gods, and worship those of the king, under the most severe penalties. To make his orders more effectual he sent overseers into every province, to see them strictly put in execution; and as he knew the Jews were the only people who would disobey them, special directions were given to have them treated with the utmost severity. Atheneas, an old and cruel minister, well versed in all the pagan rites, was sent into Judea. He began by dedicating the temple to Jupiter Olympius, and setting up his statue on the altar of burnt-offerings. Another lesser altar was raised before it, on which they offered sacrifices to that false deity. All who refused to come and worship this idol were either massacred or put to some cruel tortures, till they either complied or expired under the hands of the executioners. At the same time altars, groves, and statues, were raised every where through the country, and the inhabitants compelled to worship them, under the same severe penalties; while it was instant death to observe the sabbath, circumcision, or any other institution of Moses.

At last, when vast numbers had been put to cruel deaths, and many more had saved their lives by their apostacy, an eminent priest, named Mattathias, began to signalize himself by his bravery and zeal for religion. He had for some time been obliged to retire to Modin, his native place, in order to avoid the persecution which raged at Jerusalem. During his recess there, Appelles, one of the king's officers, came to oblige the inhabitants to comply with the above-mentioned orders. By him Mattathias and his sons were addressed in the most earnest manner, and had the most ample promises made them of the king's favour and protection, if they would renounce their religion. But Mattathias answered, that though the whole Jewish nation and the whole world were to conform to the king's edict, yet both he and his sons would continue faithful to their God to the last minute of their lives. At the same time, perceiving one of his countrymen just going to offer sacrifices to an idol, he fell upon him and instantly killed him, agreeable to the law of Moses in such cases. Upon this his sons, fired with the same zeal, killed the officer and his men; overthrew the altar and idol; and running about the city, cried out, that those who were zealous for the law of God should follow them; by which means they quickly saw themselves at the head of a numerous troop, with whom they soon after withdrew into some of the deserts of Judea. They were followed by many others, so that, in a short time, they found themselves in a condition to resist their enemies; and having considered the danger to which they were exposed by their scrupulous observance of the sabbath, they resolved to defend themselves, in case of an attack, upon that day as well as upon any other.

In the year 167 before Christ, Mattathias, finding that his followers increased daily in number, began to try his strength, by attacking the Syrians and apostate Jews. As many of these as he took he put to death, but forced a much greater number to fly for refuge into foreign countries; and having soon struck his enemies with terror, he marched from city to city, overturned the idolatrous altars, opened the Jewish synagogues, made a diligent search after all the sacred books, and caused fresh copies of them to be written; he

also caused the reading of the Scriptures to be resumed, and all the males born since the persecution to be circumcised. In all this he was attended with such success that he had extended his reformation through a considerable part of Judea within the space of one year; and would probably have completed it, had he not been prevented by death.

Mattathias was succeeded by his son Judas, surnamed Maccabeus, the greatest uninspired hero of whom the Jews can boast. His troops amounted to no more than 6000 men; yet with these he quickly made himself master of some of the strongest fortresses of Judea, and became terrible to the Syrians, Samaritans, and apostate Jews. In one year he defeated the Syrians in five pitched battles, and drove them quite out of the country; after which he purified the temple, and restored the true worship, which had been interrupted for three years and a half. Only one obstacle now remained, viz. the Syrian garrison above mentioned, which had been placed over against the temple, and which Judas could not at present reduce. In order to prevent them from interrupting the worship, however, he fortified the mountain on which the temple stood with a high wall and strong towers round about, leaving a garrison to defend it, making some additional fortifications at the same time to Bethzura, a fortress at about 20 miles distance.

In the mean time Antiochus perished of an uncommon distemper, which was attributed by the Jews to the immediate judgment of heaven. Notwithstanding this, however, the war was still carried on against the Jews; but through the valour and good conduct of Judas, the Syrians were constantly defeated, and in 163 before Christ a peace was concluded, upon terms very advantageous to the Jewish nation. This tranquillity, however, was of no long continuance; the Syrian generals renewed their hostilities, and were attended by the same ill success as before. Judas defeated them in five engagements; but in the sixth was abandoned by all his men, except 800, who, together with their chief, were slain, in the year 161 before Christ.

The news of the death of Judas threw his countrymen into the utmost consternation, and seemed to give new life to all their enemies. He was succeeded, however, by his brother Jonathan; who conducted matters with no less prudence and success than Judas had done, till he was treacherously seized and put to death by Triphon, a Syrian usurper, who shortly after murdered his own sovereign. The traitor immediately prepared to invade Judea; but found all his projects frustrated by Simon, Jonathan's brother. This pontiff repaired all the fortresses of Judea, and furnished them with fresh garrisons, took Joppa and Gaza, and drove out the Syrian garrison from the fortress of Jerusalem; but was at last treacherously murdered, by a son-in-law named Ptolemy, about 135 before Christ.

After these reigned a succession of princes, who exercised both the regal and sacerdotal functions, till, at length, Pompey, taking the advantage of their internal dissensions, brought the Jews under the Roman power.

From this time the kingdom of Syria declined in importance, till at length it was seized by Tigranis, king of Armenia. The ruin of this kingdom did not, however, immediately procure to the Romans the command of Asia, as they found a very formidable competitor in Mithridates, king of Pontus. This great but cruel prince ascended the throne at 13 years of age, and began his reign by imprisoning his mother whom his father had left joint heir of the kingdom.

In his youth Mithridates took care to inure himself to hardships, passing whole months in the open air, employed in the exercise of hunting, and often taking his rest amidst the frozen snow. When he came of age he married his sister Laodice, by whom he had a son, named Pharnaces. After this he took a journey through many different kingdoms of Asia, having nothing less in view than the whole continent. He learned their different languages, of which he is said to have spoken 22; took an estimate of their strength; and, above all, viewed narrowly their strong holds and fortified towns. In this journey he spent three years; during which time, a report being spread abroad that he was dead, his wife Laodice had a criminal conversation with one of the lords of her court, and had a son by him. When her husband returned, she presented him with a poisoned bowl; but Mithridates had accustomed himself to take antidotes for poison from his infancy, so that it had now no other effect than to hasten the destruction of his wife, which very soon took place, together with all those who had been any way accessary to her disloyalty and incontinence.

Combining in the prosecution of his scheme treachery with prudence, and cruelty with courage, he, either by assassination or open war, made himself master of Pergamos, Paphlagonia, Cappadocia, and Bithynia, and confirmed his power by ordering the massacre of all the Italians that could be found in Asia. The civil contentions of the Romans prevented them, for a long time, from sparing force sufficient to accomplish his destruction, and the defeats he sustained from their generals served only to display his astonishing abilities, in discovering resources to supply his losses. At length, reduced to the last extremity, he determined to force his way through Bosphorus, Scythia, Panonia, and Germany, and uniting his forces with the Gauls, to pass the Alps and invade Italy. When he arrived at the Cimmerian Bosphorus, having the mortification to learn that his army had revolted, and made his son Pharnaces king in his stead, he attempted to dispatch himself by poison and the sword, and at length terminated his days through the assistance of a Gaul, who slew him from compassion.

After the death of Mithridates the Romans, at their leisure, found a variety of pretexts for reducing the other kingdoms, of which we have been speaking, to provinces of their empire.

The Ptolemies of Egypt were, perhaps, the most respectable of all the successors of Alexander. They diligently cultivated the Indian commerce, for which purpose Ptolemy Philadelphus erected the city of Berenice on the Red sea. They were also several of them encouragers of learning, and under their protection Alexandria became highly celebrated as the resort of learned men. In the days of Cæsar their power had greatly declined, and when he visited Egypt, in the pursuit of Pompey, there were two pretenders to the throne; Ptolemy, the acknowledged king, and the celebrated Cleopatra, his sister; to whom, by the custom of the country, he was married; and who, by his father's will, shared jointly in the succession. Not being contented with a participation of power, Cleopatra aimed at governing alone; but being opposed in her views by the Roman senate, who confirmed her brother's title to the crown, she was banished into Syria, with Arsinoe, her younger sister. Cæsar gave her new hopes of aspiring to the kingdom, and sent both to her and her brother to plead their cause before him. Photinus, the young king's guardian, disdaining to accept this proposal, backed his refusal by sending an army

of 20,000 men to besiege him in Alexandria. Cæsar greatly repulsed the enemy; but finding the city of too great extent to be defended by so small an army as that which he was at the head of, he retired to the palace, which commanded the harbour, and there purposed to make his stand. Achillas, who commanded the Egyptians, attacked him with great vigour, and aimed at making himself master of the fleet that lay before the palace Cæsar, however, too well knew the importance of those ships in the hand of an enemy, and therefore burnt them all, in spite of every effort to prevent him. He next possessed himself of the isle of Pharos, by which he was enabled to receive supplies; and in this situation determined to withstand the united force of the Egyptians.

In the mean time, Cleopatra, having heard of the present turn in her favour, resolved to depend on Cæsar's favour for gaining the government, rather than her own forces. But no arts, as she justly conceived, were so likely to influence Cæsar as the charms of her person, which were irresistible. She was now in the bloom of youth and beauty, while every feature borrowed grace from the lively turn of her temper. To the most enchanting address she joined the most harmonious voice. With all these accomplishments she possessed a great share of the learning of the times, and could give audience to the ambassadors of seven different nations without an interpreter. The difficulty was how to get at Cæsar, as her enemies were in possession of all the avenues that led to the palace. For this purpose she went on board a small vessel, and in the evening landed near the palace, where, being wrapt up in a coverlet, she was carried, as a bundle of clothes, into the very chamber of Cæsar. Her address instantly struck him; her wit and understanding fanned the flame; but her caresses, which were carried beyond the bounds of innocence, entirely brought him over to second her claims.

Cæsar was for some time hemmed in by the Egyptians, but was at last relieved from this mortifying situation by Mithridates Pergamenus, one of his most artful partizans, who came with an army to his assistance. This general marched into Egypt, took the city of Pelusium, repulsed the Egyptian army with loss; and at last, joining with Cæsar, attacked their camp with a great slaughter of the Egyptians. Ptolemy himself, attempting to escape on board a vessel, was drowned by the ship sinking. Cæsar thus became master of all Egypt, without any farther opposition. He appointed Cleopatra, with her younger brother, who was then an infant, joint governors, according to the intent of their father's will, and drove out Arsinoe with Ganymede to banishment.

After the death of Cæsar, Cleopatra formed an acquaintance with Mark Antony, which proved the ruin of them both. After they had been defeated at Actium, they fled into Egypt, which he at first endeavoured to defend, and afterward determined to abandon, to seek her fortune in the south of Africa. When, however, all these projects had failed her, she shut herself up in a building, which appeared designed for a sepulchre, and cautiously avoided the admission of strangers. At length, after she had been removed to the palace, finding that she had only to chose between submitting to voluntary death and being reserved to grace the triumph of Augustus, she determined upon dying. Having bathed and ordered a sumptuous banquet, she attired herself in the most splendid manner. She feasted as usual; and soon after ordered all except her two women to leave the apartment. She had contrived to have an asp secretly conveyed to her in a basket of fruit; and then wrote to Augustus, to inform him of her fatal purpose, desiring to be buried in the same

tomb with Antony. Augustus, upon receiving the letter, instantly dispatched messengers, in hopes to stop her intentions, but they arrived too late. Upon entering the chamber they beheld Cleopatra lying dead upon her couch, arrayed in her royal robes. Near her Iras, one of her faithful attendants, was stretched likewise at the feet of her mistress; and Charmion, the other, half-dying, was settling the diadem upon Cleopatra's head. "Alas!" cried one of the messengers, "is this well done, Charmion?" "Yes" replied she, "it is well done; such a death becomes a glorious queen, descended from a race of glorious ancestors." Pronouncing these words, she dropped and expired with her much-loved mistress.

The Jews, from the time of the reduction of Jerusalem by Pompey, became, in fact, the subjects of the Roman empire; but their country was not finally reduced to the condition of a province till after the death of Herod Agrippa, which is recorded in the 12th chapter of Acts. From this time they were oppressed by a succession of cruel governors, till, at length, impatient under their weight of calamities, and animated by the expectation of a temporal Messiah, they broke out into actual rebellion, in the 67th year of the Christian era. This terminated in the destruction of Jerusalem, five years after, when 1,100,000 perished by the pestilence, famine, the sword of the Romans, and the fury of domestic factions.

A fate not much milder, in the third century, befel Palmyra, another celebrated Asiatic city. The origin of this place, which has astonished posterity by its magnificent remains, is enwrapped in considerable obscurity. It was either erected or fortified by Solomon, and is mentioned in Scripture under the name of Tadmor. Its wealth was probably derived from the intercourse which was maintained by the inhabitants of Syria, Palestine, and Phœnicia, with those of the East of Asia, by means of caravans. After the captivity of Valerian, its governor, Odenathus, began to aspire to independence; and his widow, Zenobia, not contented with this, extended her dominion over Syria and Egypt, and assumed the title of queen of the East. The emperor Aurelian marched against her with a numerous army, and after defeating her forces in two battles, obliged her to take refuge in her capital. Here she, for a time, defended herself with great vigour, but at length, finding that all prospect of relief was vanished, sought safety by flight, but was taken and carried prisoner to Rome. The inhabitants were treated with lenity, till, in a tumult, they murdered their governor, in revenge for which, Aurelian gave them up to an undistinguishing massacre. From this time the consequence of Palmyra has declined, till it was reduced to its present state, that of a miserable village.

In the beginning of the fourth century several events took place of the utmost magnitude to the whole Roman world; the erecting of Constantinople, the establishment of the Christian religion, and the division of the empire between the three sons of Constantine. Though each of these measures was probably designed for the general good, yet each of them became productive of the most serious evils. The barbarians who were formidable to the whole empire united, became still more formidable when the latter was governed by different sovereigns, who frequently were actuated by the most contrary principles, and viewed each other as objects of hatred: while the Christian pastors became extremely degenerate in their morals, embarked in a number of controversies, many of which were unimportant, and all conducted with a spirit quite opposite to that of our holy religion.

During the long period of 1000 years, in which Constantinople remained in the hands of the Christians, it had but few emperors sufficiently celebrated to deserve a place in the present work. The sons of Constantine soon fell into variance, and by employing their swords against each other, promoted the cause both of the barbarians and the usurpers. Julian, who, though an enemy to the Christian faith, was a prince of considerable virtues and abilities, perished in an ill-conducted expedition against the Persians.

Theodosius was a vigorous though severe prince, and proved extremely formidable to the barbarians on every side. In the reign of Justinian, in the sixth century, the majesty of the empire seemed to revive. His general, Belisarius, recovered the provinces of Italy and Africa; while he himself, with the assistance of his lawyers, composed those celebrated works, which, under the name of institutes, codes, and pandects, contained the body of the civil law. During the succeeding ages, the empire suffered severely from the Saracens and Bulgarians, and in the year 1041 was invaded by an enemy, not very powerful at that time indeed, but who, by degrees, gathered strength sufficient to overthrow both the Roman and Saracen empires. These were the Turks; who, having quitted their antient habitations, in the neighbourhood of mount Caucasus, and passed the Caspian straits, settled in Armenia Major, about the year 844. There they continued, an unknown and despicable people, till the intestine wars of the Saracens gave them an opportunity of aggrandizing themselves. About the year 1030 Mohammed, the son of Sambrael, sultan of Persia, not finding himself a match for Pisaris, sultan of Babylon, with whom he was at war, had recourse to the Turks, who sent him 3000 men, under the command of one Tangrolipix, a leading man among them. By their assistance, Mohammed defeated his adversary; but when the Turks desired leave to return home, he refused to part with them. Upon this they withdrew, without his consent, to a neighbouring desert; and being there joined with several discontented Persians, began to make frequent inroads into the sultan's territories. Against these Mohammed immediately dispatched an army of 20,000 men; who, being surprised in the night, were utterly defeated by Tangrolipix. The fame of this victory drew multitudes to him from all parts; so that, in a short time, Tangrolipix saw himself at the head of 50,000 men. Upon this Mohammed marched against them in person, but was thrown from his horse, in the beginning of the engagement, and killed by the fall; when his men threw down their arms, and submitted to Tangrolipix.

After this victory, the Turkish general made war upon the sultan of Babylon, whom he at length slew, and annexed his dominions to his own.

A little after this empire had been erected on the Euphrates began those expeditions which are called Croisades.

These expeditions commenced in the year 1096. The foundation of them was a superstitious veneration for those places where our Saviour performed his miracles, and accomplished the work of man's redemption. Jerusalem had been taken and Palestine conquered by Omar, the successor of Abu Becr, who succeeded Mahomet himself. This proved a considerable interruption to the pilgrims, who flocked from all quarters to perform their devotions at the holy sepulchre. They had, however, still been allowed this liberty, on paying a small tribute to the Saracen khalifs, who were not much inclined to molest them. But in 1065 this city changed its masters. The Turks took it from the Saracens; and being much more fierce and barbarous than the former, the pilgrims now found they could

no longer perform their devotions with the same safety they did before. An opinion was about this time also prevalent in Europe, which made these pilgrimages much more frequent than formerly. It was somehow or other imagined that the thousand years mentioned in the 20th chapter of the Revelations were fulfilled; that Christ was soon to make his appearance in Palestine to judge the world; and consequently that journeys to that country were in the highest degree meritorious, and even absolutely necessary. The multitudes of pilgrims, which now flocked to Palestine, meeting with a very rough reception from the Turks, filled all Europe with complaints against those infidels who profaned the Holy City by their presence, and derided the sacred mysteries of Christianity, even in the place where they were fulfilled. Pope Gregory VII. had formed a design of uniting all the princes of Christendom against the Mahometans; but his exorbitant encroachments upon the civil power of princes had created him so many enemies, and rendered his schemes so suspicious that he was not able to make great progress in this undertaking. The work was reserved for a meaner instrument.

Peter, commonly called the hermit, a native of Amiens in Picardy, had made the pilgrimage to Jerusalem; and being deeply affected with the dangers to which this act of piety now exposed the pilgrims, as well as with the oppression under which the Eastern Christians now laboured, formed the bold, and, in all appearance, impracticable design of leading into Asia, from the farthest extremities of the west, armies sufficient to subdue those potent and warlike nations, that now held the Holy Land in slavery. He proposed his scheme to Martin II. who then filled the papal chair; but he, though sensible enough of the advantages which must accrue to himself from such an undertaking, resolved not to interpose his authority, till he saw a greater probability of success. He summoned at Placentia a council, consisting of 4000 ecclesiastics and 30,000 seculars. As no hall could be found large enough to contain such a multitude, the assembly was held in a plain. Here the pope himself, as well as Peter, harangued the people, representing the dismal situation of their brethren in the East, and the indignity offered to the Christian name, in allowing the holy city to remain in the hands of the infidels. These speeches were so agreeable to those who heard them, that the whole multitude suddenly and violently declared for the war, and solemnly devoted themselves to perform this service, which they believed to be so meritorious in the sight of God.

But though Italy seemed to have embraced the design with ardour, Martin yet thought it necessary, in order to insure perfect success, to engage the greater and more warlike nations in the same enterprize. Having therefore exhorted Peter to visit the chief cities and sovereigns of Christendom, he summoned another council, at Clermont in Auvergne. The fame of this great and pious design being now universally diffused, procured the attendance of the greatest prelates, nobles, and princes; and when the pope and the hermit renewed their pathetic exhortations, the whole assembly, as if compelled by an immediate inspiration, exclaimed, with one voice, "It is the will of God! It is the will of God!" These words were deemed so memorable and so much the effect of a divine impulse, that they were employed as the signal of rendezvous and battle in all future exploits of these adventurers. Men of all ranks now flew to arms with the utmost ardour, and a cross was affixed to their right shoulder by all who inlisted in this holy enterprise.

At this time Europe was sunk into the most profound ignorance and superstition. The

ecclesiastics had gained the greatest ascendant over the human mind, and the people, who committed the most horrid crimes and disorders, knew of no other expiation than the observances imposed on them by their spiritual pastors.

But amidst the abject superstition which now prevailed, the military spirit had also universally diffused itself; and though not supported by art or discipline, was become the general passion of the nations governed by the feudal law. All the great lords possessed the right of peace and war. They were engaged in continual hostilities with one another; the open country was become a scene of outrage and disorder; the cities, still mean and poor, were neither guarded by walls nor protected by privileges. Every man was obliged to depend for safety on his own force or his private alliances; and valour was the only excellence which was held in esteem, or gave one man the pre-eminence above another. When all the particular superstitions, therefore, were here united in one great object, the ardour for private hostilities took the same direction; "and all Europe (as the princess Comnena expresses herself), torn from its foundations, seemed ready to precipitate itself, in one united body, upon Asia."

All orders of men, now deeming the croisades the only road to heaven, were impatient to set off with their swords to the holy city. Nobles, artisans, peasants, even priests, inrolled their names; and to decline this service was branded with the reproach of impiety or cowardice. The nobles who enlisted themselves were moved, by the romantic spirit of the age, to hope for opulent establishments in the East, the chief seat of arts and commerce at that time. In pursuit of these chimerical projects, they sold, at the lowest price, their antient castles and inheritances, which had now lost all value in their eyes. The infirm and aged contributed to the expedition by presents and money; and many of them, not satisfied with this, attended it in person, being determined, if possible, to breathe their last in sight of that city where their Saviour had died for them. Women themselves, concealing their sex, under the disguise of armour, attended the camp; and commonly forgot their duty still more by prostituting themselves to the army. The greatest criminals were forward in a service which they considered as an expiation for all crimes; and the most enormous disorders were, during the course of these expeditions, committed, by men inured to wickedness, encouraged by example, and impelled by necessity. The multitude of adventurers soon became so great that their more sagacious leaders became apprehensive lest the greatness of the armament would be the cause of its own disappointment. For this reason they permitted an undisciplined multitude, computed at 300,000 men, to go before them, under the command of Peter the hermit and Gautier or Walter, surnamed the moneyless, from his being a soldier of fortune. These took the road towards Constantinople, through Hungary and Bulgaria; and trusting that heaven, by supernatural assistance, would supply all their necessities, they made no provision for subsistence in their march. They soon found themselves obliged to obtain by plunder what they vainly expected from miracles; and the enraged inhabitants of the countries, through which they passed, attacked the disorderly multitude, and slaughtered them without resistance. The more disciplined armies followed after; and passing the straits of Constantinople, they were mustered in the plains of Asia, and amounted in the whole to 700,000 men.

This rage for conquering the Holy Land did not cease with this expedition; it continued for very near two centuries and eight different croisades were set on foot one

after another. The first was in the year 1096, as already observed. The princes engaged in it were Hugo, count of Vermandois, brother to Philip I. king of France; Robert, duke of Normandy; Robert, earl of Flanders; Raimond, earl of Toulouse and St. Giles; Godfrey of Bouillon, duke of Lorrain, with his brothers Baldwin and Eustace, Stephen, earl of Chartres and Blois; Hugo, count of St. Paul; with a great number of other lords. The general rendezvous was at Constantinople. In this expedition the famous Godfrey besieged and took the city of Nice. The city of Jerusalem was taken by the confederate army, and Godfrey chosen king. The Christians gained the famous battle of Ascalon, against the soldan of Egypt; which put an end to the first croisade.

The second croisade, in the year 1144, was headed by the emperor Conrad III. and Louis VII. king of France. The emperor's army was either destroyed by the enemy or perished through the treachery of Manuel, the Greek emperor; and the second army, through the unfaithfulness of the Christians of Syria, was forced to break up the siege of Damascus.

The third croisade, in the year 1188, immediately followed the taking of Jerusalem by Saladin, the soldan of Egypt. The princes engaged in this expedition were the emperor Frederic Barbarossa; Frederic, duke of Suabia, his second son; Leopold, duke of Austria; Berthold, duke of Moravia; Herman, marquis of Baden; the counts of Nassau, Thuringia, Missen, and Holland, and above 60 other princes of the empire; with the bishops of Besançon, Cambray, Munster, Osnaburg, Missen, Passau, Visburg, and several others. In this expedition the emperor Frederic defeated the soldan of Iconium; his son Frederic, joined by Guy Lusignon, king of Jerusalem, in vain endeavoured to take Acre or Ptolemais. During which transactions Philip Augustus, king of France, and Richard I. king of England, joined the croisade; by which means the Christian army consisted of 300,000 fighting men; but great disputes happening between the kings of France and England, the former quitted the Holy Land, and Richard concluded a peace with Saladin.

The fourth croisade was undertaken in the year 1195, by the emperor Henry VI. after Saladin's death. In this expedition the Christians gained several battles against the infidels, took a great many towns, and were on the point of success, when the death of the emperor obliged them to quit the Holy Land, and return into Germany.

The fifth croisade was published by order of pope Innocent III. in 1198. Those engaged in it made fruitless efforts for the recovery of the Holy Land; for though John De Neule, who commanded the fleet equipped in Flanders, arrived at Ptolemais a little after Simon of Montfort, Renard of Dampierre, and others, yet the plague destroying many of them, and others either returning or engaging in the petty quarrels of the Christian princes, there was nothing done; so that the soldan of Aleppo easily defeated their troops in 1204.

The sixth croisade began in 1228, in which the Christians took the town of Damietta, but were forced to surrender it again. The next year the emperor Frederic made peace with the soldan for 10 years. About 1240, Richard, earl of Cornwal, and brother to Henry III. king of England, arrived in Palestine, at the head of the English croisade; but finding it most advantageous to conclude a peace, he re-embarked, and steered towards Italy. In 1244 the Karasmians gave the Christians a general defeat near Gaza.

The seventh croisade was headed by St. Lewis in the year 1249, who took the town of Damietta; but a sickness happening in the Christian army, the king endeavoured a retreat; in which being pursued by the infidels, most of his army were miserably butchered, and himself and the nobility taken prisoners. A truce was then agreed upon for 10 years, and the king and lords set at liberty.

The eighth croisade, in 1270, was headed by the same prince, who made himself master of the port and castle of Carthage in Africa; but dying in a short time, he left his army in a very ill condition. Soon after, the king of Sicily coming up with a good fleet, and joining Philip the Bold, son and successor of Lewis, the king of Tunis, after several engagements with the Christians, in which he was always worsted, desired peace, which was granted, upon conditions advantageous to the Christians; after which both princes embarked for their kingdoms. Prince Edward of England, who arrived at Tunis at the time of this treaty, sailed towards Ptolemais, where he landed, with a small body of 3000 English and French, and hindered Bendocdar from laying siege to Ptolemais; but being obliged to quit the Holy Land, to take possession of the crown of England, this croisade ended, without contributing any to the recovery of the Holy Land. In 1291 the town of Acre or Ptolemais was taken and plundered by the soldan of Egypt, and the Christians quite driven out of Syria. There has been no croisade since that time, though several popes have attempted to stir up the Christians in such an undertaking, particularly Nicholas IV. in 1292, and Clement V. in 1311.

Though these croisades were effects of the most absurd superstition, they tended greatly to promote the good of Europe. Multitudes indeed were destroyed; M. Voltaire computes the people who perished in the different expeditions at upwards of 2,000,000. Many there were, however, who returned; and these, having conversed so long with people who lived in a much more magnificent way than themselves, began to entertain some taste for a refined and polished way of life. Thus the barbarism in which Europe had been so long immersed began to wear off soon after this time. The princes also who remained at home found means to avail themselves of the frenzy of the people. By the absence of such numbers of restless and martial adventurers, peace was established in their dominions. They also took the opportunity of annexing to their crown many considerable fiefs, either by purchase or by the extinction of the heirs; and thus the mischiefs which must always attend feudal governments were considerably lessened.

In the year 1299 the Turks first made their appearance in Europe. Their first expeditions were unsuccessful, but in 1327 they made themselves masters of Prusa in Bithynia. The next year Othoman, the founder of their monarchy, died, and was succeeded by Orchanes, who seized Abydus and Nicomedia. Amurath reduced all Thrace, and made Adrianople the seat of his empire. His son Bajazet conquered Thessaly, Macedon, Phocis, Peloponnesus, Mysia, and Bulgaria, and had nearly reduced Constantinople to its last extremity, when he marched against Tamerlane, by whom he was defeated and taken prisoner. Amurath II. found his conquests greatly impeded by the celebrated John Hunniades, the Hungarian general. The reign of his son Mohammed was distinguished by the taking of Constantinople, a transaction of so great importance as to deserve a particular narration. In the beginning of his reign he entered into an alliance with Constantine, and pretended a great desire to live in friendship with him and the other Christian princes;

but no sooner had he put an end to a war in which he was engaged with Ibrahim, king of Caramania, than he built a strong fort on the European side of the Bosphorus, opposite to another in Asia; in both of which he placed strong garrisons. These two castles commanded the straits; and the former being five miles from the city, kept it in a manner blocked up. This soon produced a misunderstanding between him and the emperor, which ended in the siege of the city. The siege commenced on the sixth of April, 1453; Mohammed's numerous forces covering the plains before it on the land side, and a fleet of 300 sail blocking it up by sea. The emperor, however, had taken care to secure the haven, in which were three large ships, 20 small ones, and a great number of galleys, by means of a chain drawn cross the entrance. Mohammed began the siege by planting batteries as near the city as he could, and raising mounts in several places, as high as the walls themselves, whence the besieged were incessantly galled with showers of arrows. He had in his camp a piece of ordnance, of prodigious size, which is said to have carried a ball of 100 pounds weight, made of hard black stone, brought from the Euxine sea. With this vast piece the enemy made several breaches in the walls, which, however, were repaired with incredible expedition by the besieged. But Mohammed, the better to carry on the siege, caused new levies to be made throughout his extensive dominions, by which his army was soon increased to near 400,000 men; while the garrison consisted only of 9000 regular troops; viz. 6000 Greeks and 3000 Venetians. As the enemy continued to batter the walls, day and night, without intermission, a great part of them was at last beaten down; but while the Turks were busy in filling up the ditch, in order to give the assault, a new wall was built. This threw the tyrant into a prodigious rage, which was greatly heightened when he saw his whole fleet worsted by five ships, four of which were laden with corn from Peloponnesus, and the other with all manner of provisions from Chios. These opened themselve a way through the whole Turkish fleet; and, to the inexpressible joy of the Christians, at last got safe into the harbour.

The Turks attempted several times to force the haven; but all their efforts proving ineffectual, Mohammed formed a design of conveying 80 galleys over land, for the space of eight miles, into it. This he accomplished by means of certain engines, the contrivance of a renegado, and having then either taken or sunk all the ships contained in it, he caused a bridge to be built over it, with surprising expedition. By this means the city was laid open to an assault from that side likewise. The place was now assaulted on all sides, and Constantine being well apprised that he could not long hold out against such a mighty fleet and so numerous an army, sent deputies to Mohammed, offering to acknowledge himself his vassal, by paying him yearly what tribute he should think proper to impose, provided he raised the siege and withdrew. The tyrant answered that he was determined, at all events, to become master of the city; but if the emperor delivered it up forthwith, he would yield up to him Peloponnesus, and other provinces to his brothers, which they should enjoy peaceably as his friends and allies; but if he held out to the last extremity, and suffered it to be taken by assault, he would put him and the whole nobility to the sword, abandon the city to be plundered by his soldiers, and carry the inhabitants into captivity.

This condition was rashly rejected by the emperor, who thereby involved himself and all his subjects in the most terrible calamity. The siege was renewed with more vigour

than ever, and continued till the 25th of May, when a report was spread in the Turkish camp that a mighty army was advancing in full march to the relief of the city, under the conduct of the celebrated John Hunniades; the common soldiers, seized with a panic, began to mutiny, and press Mohammed in a tumultuous manner to break up the siege. Nay they openly threatened him with death, if he did not immediately abandon the enterprize and retire from before the city, which they despaired of being able to reduce before the arrival of the supposed succours. Mohammed was upon the point of complying with their demand, when he was advised by Zagan, a Turkish officer, of great intrepidity, and an irreconcileable enemy to the Christian name, to give, without loss of time, a general assault. To this he said the soldiery, however mutinous, would not be averse, provided the sultan solemnly promised to abandon the city to be plundered by them. As such an advice best suited the humour of Mohammed, he readily embraced it, and caused a proclamation to be published throughout the camp, declaring that he gave up to his soldiers all the wealth of that opulent city, requiring to himself only the empty houses.

The desire of plunder soon got the better of that fear which had seized the Turkish army, and they unanimously desired to be led on to the attack. Hereupon Constantine was summoned, for the last time, to deliver up the city, with a promise of his life and liberty; but to this he answered, that he was unalterably determined either to defend the city or perish with it. The attack began at three in the morning of Tuesday, the 29th of May; such troops were first employed as the sultan valued least, and designed them for no other purpose than to tire the Christians, who made a prodigious havock of that disorderly multitude. After the carnage had lasted some hours, the janizaries and other fresh troops advanced in good order, and renewed the attack with incredible vigour. The Christians, summoning all their courage and resolution, twice repulsed the enemy; but being in the end quite spent, they were no longer able to stand their ground, so that the enemy, in several places, broke into the city. In the mean time, Justiniani, the commander of the Genoese and a select body of Greeks, having received two wounds, one in the thigh and the other in the hand, was so disheartened, that he caused himself to be conveyed to Galata, where he soon after died of grief. His men, dismayed at the sudden flight of their general, immediately quitted their posts, and fled in the utmost confusion. However, the emperor, attended with a few of the most resolute of the nobility, still kept his post, striving, with unparalleled resolution, to oppose the multitude of barbarians that now broke in from every quarter. But being in the end overpowered with numbers, and seeing all his friends lie dead on the ground, "What (cried he aloud) is there no Christian left alive to strike off my head?" He had scarce uttered these words, when one of the enemy, not knowing him, gave him a deep cut across the face with his sabre; and at the same time, another coming behind him, with a blow on the back part of his head, laid him dead on the ground. After the death of the emperor, the few Christians that were left alive betook themselves to flight; and the Turks, meeting with no further opposition, entered the city, which they filled with blood and slaughter. They gave no quarter, but put all they met to the sword, without distinction. Many thousands took refuge in the church of St. Sophia, but they were all massacred in their asylum by the enraged barbarians; who, prompted by their natural cruelty, the desire of revenge, and love of booty, spared no place nor person. Most of the nobility were, by the sultan's orders, cut off:

and the rest kept for purposes more grievous than death itself. Many of the inhabitants, among whom were some men of great learning, found means to make their escape, while the Turks were busied in plundering the city. These embarking on five ships, then in the harbour, arrived safe in Italy, where, with the study of the Greek tongue, they revived the liberal sciences, which had long been neglected in the West. After the expiration of three days, Mohammed commanded his soldiers to forbear all farther hostilities, on pain of death, and then put an end to as cruel a pillage and massacre as any mentioned in history. The next day he made his public and triumphal entry into Constantinople, and chose it for the seat of the Turkish empire, which it has continued to be ever since.

Mohammed afterwards conquered Walakia, Bosnia, and Illyria, and after the death of Cendarbeg, the celebrated prince of Epirus, that country and Albania. Bajazet II. subdued Circassia, and his son Selim conquered Syria and Egypt. Solyman I. took the city of Rhodes, defeated and killed the king of Hungary, and besieged Vienna without success.

In the reign of Selim II. the maritime power of the Turks was almost destroyed at Lepanto; since which time they have been less prosperous, and ever since the prodigious overthrow they received in 1697, from prince Eugene, have ceased to be very formidable to the Christian princes.

The spirit of their government and the effect it produces on the general welfare of the empire is thus described by De Volney, in his account of Syria.

When the Ottomans, under sultan Selim, took Syria from the Mamlouks, they considered it only as the spoil of a vanquished enemy; as a possession acquired by the law of arms and war. Now, according to this law, among barbarous nations, the vanquished is wholly at the discretion of the victor; he becomes his slave; his life, his property belong to his conqueror; he may dispose of all as master, he owes his captive nothing, and accounts what he leaves him as a favour. Such was this law among the Greeks and Romans, and among all those societies of robbers whom we have honoured with the name of conquerors. Such at all times was that of the Tartars, from whom the Turks derive their origin. On these principles even their first social state was formed. In the plains of Tartary, the hordes, divided by interest, were no other than bands of robbers, armed for attack or defence, and to seize as fair booty whatever they might covet. Already all the elements of their present state were formed; continually wandering and encamped, they were at once shepherds and soldiers; each horde was an army; now in an army laws are but the orders of the chief; these orders are absolute, and suffer no delay; they must proceed from one will, and from a single head: hence a supreme authority in him who commands; and a passive submission in him who obeys. But as in the transmission of these orders, the instrument becomes an agent in his turn, the consequence is a spirit at once imperious and servile, which is precisely that exhibited by the Turkish conquerors. Proud, after their victory, of being one of the conquering people, the meanest of the Ottomans treated the most illustrious of the vanquished with the lofty superiority of a master; and this spirit diffusing itself through every rank, we may judge of the distance from whence the Supreme Chief looks down upon the crowd of slaves beneath him. The sentiments he conceives of them cannot be better pourtrayed than in the formulary of the titles assumed by the sultans in their public acts: "I" say they, in their treaties with the kings of France, "I, who am, by the infinite grace of the great, just, and omnipotent

Creator, and by the innumerable miracles of the chief of prophets, Emperor of Powerful Emperors, the Refuge of Sovereigns, the Distributor of Crowns to the Kings of the Earth, Servant of the two thrice sacred Cities (Mecca and Medina), Governor of the Holy City of Jerusalem, Master of Europe, Asia, and Africa, conquered by our Victorious Sword and our Terrific Lance, Lord of the two Seas (the White and Black seas); of Damascus, the Odour of Paradise; of Bagdad, the Seat of the Khalifs; of the Fortresses of Belgrade, Agria, and a Multitude of Countries, Islands, Straits, Nations, Generations, and of so many Victorious Armies, which repose beneath the Shade of our Sublime Porte; I, in short, who am the Shadow of God on Earth, &c."

From such exalted grandeur how must the sultan look down on the rest of mankind? In what light must he view that earth which he possesses and distributes, but as a domain of which he is absolute master? What must the people he has subdued appear, but slaves devoted to his service? and what the soldiers he commands but servants, by whose means he retains these slaves in obedience? Such is the real character of the Turkish government. This empire may be compared to a plantation in one of our sugar islands, where a multitude of slaves labour to supply the luxury of one great proprietor, under the inspection of a few servants, who take good care of themselves. There is no difference, except that the dominions of the sultan being too vast for a single administration, he is obliged to divide it into smaller plantations, and separate governments, administered in the same mode as the united empire. Such are the provinces under the government of the pachas. These provinces again being too extensive, the pachas have had recourse to further subdivision, and hence that series of subalterns which, step by step, descends to the lowest employments. In this gradation of authority, the object in view being invariably the same, the means employed never change their nature. Thus power being absolute and arbitrary in the monarch, is transmitted absolute and arbitrary to all sub-delegates. Each of these is the exact image of his next superior. It is still the sultan who dictates and commands, under the varied names of pacha, motsallam, kaiem-makam, and aga, nor is there one in this descending scale, even to the delibashe, who does not represent him. It is curious to hear with what insolence the lowest of these soldiers, giving his orders in a village, pronounces, It is the will of the sultan; It is the sultan's pleasure. The reason of this insolence is easy explained; for the bearer of the orders becomes for that moment himself the sultan. It is not difficult to conceive what must be the consequence of such an administration, since all experience invariably proves that moderation is the most difficult of virtues; and since even those men who preach it most frequently, neglect to purchase it; how numerous must be the abuses of unlimited power in the great, who are strangers both to forbearance and pity; in upstarts, proud of authority, and eager to profit by it; and in subalterns, continually aiming at greater power. Let us judge, therefore, how far certain speculative writers are justified, in insinuating that despotism in Turkey is not so great an evil as we imagine, since, from its residing in the person of the sovereign, it can only affect the great, by whom he is immediately surrounded. It is certain, to use the expression of the Turks, that the sabre of the sultan does not descend upon the dust; but this sabre he entrusts to the hand of his vizir, who delivers it to the pacha, from whom it passes to the motsallem, to the aga, and even to the lowest delibashe; so that it is in fact within the reach of the vilest retainer to office, and its destructive

edge descends even on the meanest heads. This erroneous reasoning arises from the state of the people at Constantinople, to whom the sultan is more attentive than to those of the provinces; but this attention, which his own personal safety renders necessary there, is paid to no other part of the empire; and even there it may be said to be attended with disagreeable effects; for if Constantinople is in want of provisions, ten provinces are famished for a supply. Yet which is of most importance to the empire, the capital or the provinces? In case of war, by which must soldiers be furnished, and by which fed? To the provinces therefore must we look to discover the real effects of despotism, and in Turkey, as every where else, we must be convinced that arbitrary power in the sovereign is fatal to the state; as from the sovereign it must necessarily devolve upon its subalterns, and become more abused the lower it descends; since it is a maxim, verified by constant experience, that the slave become master is the most rigorous of tyrants. Let us now examine the abuses of this administration, as far as it respects Syria.

In each government, the pacha, being the image of the sultan, is, like him, an absolute despot. All power is united in his person; he is chief, both of the military and the finances of the police, and criminal justice. He has the power of life and death; he has the power of making peace and war; in a word, he can do every thing. The main object of so much authority is to collect the tribute; that is, to transmit the revenue to the great proprietor, who has conquered, and who possesses the country, by the right of his terrific lance. This duty fulfilled, no other is required from him; the means employed by the agent to accomplish it is a matter of no great concern; those means are at his discretion; and such is the nature of his situation, that he cannot be delicate in his choice of them; for in the first place he can neither advance nor even maintain himself, but in proportion as he can procure money. Secondly, the place he holds depends on the favour of the vizir, or some other great officer; and this can only be obtained and secured by bidding higher than his competitors. He must therefore raise money to pay the tribute, and also to indemnify himself for all he has paid, support his dignity, and make a provision in case of accidents. Accordingly, the first care of a pacha, on entering on his government, is to devise methods to procure money, and the quickest are invariably the best. The pacha may applaud himself for penetrating into the most hidden sources of private profits, by the clear-sighted capacity of his subalterns; but what is the consequence? The people, denied the enjoyment of the fruit of their labour, restrain their industry to the supply of their necessary wants. The husbandman only sows to preserve himself from starving; the artist labours only to bring up his family; if he has any surplus he carefully conceals it. Thus the arbitrary power of the sultan, transmitted to the pacha and to all his sub-delegates, by giving a free course to extortion, becomes the main spring of a tyranny, which circulates through every class, whilst its effects, by a reciprocal re-action, every where fatal to agriculture, the arts, commerce, population, in a word, every thing which constitutes the power of the state, or, which is the same thing, the power of the sultan himself.

VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK IX.

Christian Africa.

CHAPTER I.

Abyssinia.

ABYSSINIA, by some called Higher Ethiopia, and by the Arabians Al Habash, is bounded on the north by Nubia; on the east by the Arabic gulf or Red sea, and the kingdom of Adil; on the south by the kingdoms of Ajan, Alabo, and Gingiro; and on the west by the kingdom of Goram and part of Gingiro; and is divided into a great number of provinces. The principal river is the Nile, which has its source in this country; and the most considerable lake, that of Dambea, which discharges itself into the Nile, is about 700 miles in length and 90 in breadth. The air is pretty temperate in the mountains, and therefore their towns and strong holds are generally placed on them; but in the valleys it is hot and suffocating. The soil and face of the country is various. In some places there are nothing but rocks and profound caverns; in others, especially where there are rivers, the land is exceedingly fruitful; and the banks of these streams are bordered with flowers of various kinds, many of which are unknown in Europe. The torrents, in the rainy season, wash a great deal of gold from the mountains. This season begins in May, when the sun is vertical, or directly over their heads, and ends in September. The country produces a great variety of animals, both tame and wild, such as lions, tigers, rhinoceroses, leopards, elephants, monkeys, stags, deer; horses, camels, dromedaries, goats, cows, sheep; likewise ostriches, with a vast variety of other birds. In the rivers are crocodiles, and the hippopotamus. Travellers mention also a peculiar kind of bees, small, black, and without a sting, which hive in the earth, and make honey and wax that are extremely white. The country is greatly infested with locusts, which devour every thing that is green, wherever they come.

The inhabitants are Moors, Pagans, Jews, and Christians. The last is the reigning and established religion, but so corrupted with superstitious errors, and so mingled with ceremonies borrowed from the Jews, that little beside the name of Christianity is to be found among them. They have two harvests in the year; one in winter, which begins in May, and lasts, with great rigour, through the months of July, August, and September, and the other in spring. Every man who has a thousand cows, saves, once a-year, a day's

milk, and makes a bath for his friends; so that, to give an idea of a man's wealth, their expression is, he bathes so many times a-year. Their males marry about 10 years old and the females younger. Their marriage tie is so loose that they part whenever they find they cannot live agreeably together.

Besides the large towns there are a great number of villages, which, in some places, are so thick sown that they look like one continual town; the houses are very mean, being but one story high, and built of straw, earth, and lime. In most of the towns, the houses are separated by hedges, which are always green, and mixed with flowers and fruit-trees at a certain distance from each other, which affords an agreeable prospect. The government is monarchial. The sovereign has the title of negus, and is an absolute prince. When he is in camp, the tents are so regularly disposed as to have the appearance of a city; and there is a captain over every division, to prevent disorders and to execute justice.

The Abyssines in general are of an olive complexion, tall, graceful, and well featured. Those who are neither mechanics, nor tradesmen (which few of them are), nor tillers of the ground, are inured to bear arms, which are a head-piece, a buckler, a coat of mail, bows and arrows, darts, pikes, capped with iron at both ends, a sling, and a sword; they have very few fire-arms, and those were introduced by the Portuguese. The habit of persons of quality is a fine silken vest, or fine cotton, with a kind of scarf; the citizens have the same habit, only coarser; the common people have nothing but a pair of cotton drawers, and a scarf, which covers the rest of the body. The women are of a healthy constitution, active, and moderately handsome, having neither flat noses nor thick lips, like the negroes; and nature is so friendly, that they stand in little need of midwives, which is indeed the case of most countries in the torrid zone. They appear in public as in Europe, without being forbid the conversation of the men, as among the Mahometans. Princesses of the royal blood are not permitted to marry foreigners; and when they take the air, they go in great state, with 4 or 500 woman attendants. Their language is the Ethiopic, which bears a great affinity with the Arabic; but particular provinces have a different dialect.

Manufactures are almost wholly wanting in this country, and the few trades which they have amongst them are always conveyed from the father to the children. They seem indeed, by their churches and other ruinated places, to have had a knowledge of architecture. But the workmen were sent for from other countries, and were forced to do all themselves; so that, when these fabrics were reared, especially the imperial palace, built by Peter Pais, a Portuguese architect, the people flocked from all parts of Ethiopia to view it, and admired it as a new wonder of the world. Gold, silver, copper, and iron are the principal ores with which their mines abound, in this extensive part of Africa; but not above one third part is made use of by way of merchandize or converted into money; for which they have little or no use in Abyssinia. They cut their gold into small pieces, for the pay of their troops, and for expences of the court, which is but a modern custom among them; the king's gold, before the end of the 17th century, being laid up in his treasury, in ingots, with intent to be never carried out, or never used in any thing but vessels and trinkets for the service of the palace. In the lieu of small money, they make use of rock-salt, as white as snow, and as hard as stone. This is taken out of the

mountain of Lafta, and put into the king's warehouses; where it is reduced into tablets, of a foot long and three inches broad, ten of which are worth about a French crown. When they are circulated in trade, they are reduced into still smaller pieces, as occasion requires. This salt is also applied to the same purpose as the common sea-salt. With this mineral salt they purchase pepper, spices, and silk stuffs, which are brought to them by the Indians in their ports in the Red sea. Cardamums, ginger, aloes, myrrh, cassia, civit, ebony-wood, ivory, wax, honey, cotton, and linens of various sorts and colours, are merchandizes which may be had from Abyssinia; to which may be added sugar, hemp, flax, and excellent wines, if these people had the art of preparing them. It is affirmed there are in this country the finest emeralds that are any where to be found; and though they are found but in one place, they are there in great quantities, and so large and so perfect as to be of almost inestimable value. The greatest part of the merchandizes above mentioned are more for foreign than inland trade. Their domestic commerce consists chiefly in salt, honey, buck-wheat, grey peas, citrons, oranges, lemons, and other provisions, with fruit, and herbage necessary for the support of life. Those places that the Abyssinian merchants frequent the most, who dare venture to carry their commodities by sea themselves, are Arabia Felix and the Indies, particularly Goa, Cambaye, Bengal, and Sumatra. With regard to their ports on the Red sea, to which foreign merchants commonly resort, the most considerable are those of Mette, Agom, Zajalla, Maga, Dazo, Patea, and Brava. The trade of the Abyssinians by land is inconsiderable. There are, however, bands of them who arrive yearly at Egypt, particularly at Cairo, laden with gold dust, which they bring to barter for the merchandizes of that country or of Europe, for which they have occasion. These cabilas or caravans, if we may be allowed thus to call a body of 40 or 50 poor wretches, who unite together for their mutual assistance in their journey, are commonly three or four months on their route, traversing forests and mountains, almost impassable, in order to exchange their gold for necessaries for their families, and return immediately, with the greatest part of the merchandise on their backs. Frequently the Jews or Egyptians give them large credit, which may seem surprising, as they are beyond recourse if they should fail of payment. But experience has shown that they have never abused the confidence reposed in them; and even in the event of death, their fellow-travellers take care of the effects of the deceased, for the benefit of their families, but in the first place for the discharge of those debts contracted at Cairo. It remains only to be observed, that one of the principal branches of trade of the Abyssines is that of slaves; who are greatly esteemed in the Indies and Arabia, for the best and most faithful of all that the other kingdoms of Africa furnish. The Indian and Arabian merchants frequently substitute them as their factors; and on account of their good services and integrity, not only often give them their liberty, but liberally reward them.

Mr. Bruce supposes that the original inhabitants of the country were the descendants of Cush, called Troglodytes by the antients, and now denominated Shangalla. They are of the same race as the negroes of Guinea, and were formerly a highly civilized people, residing in caverns, formed in the rocks on high mountains, erected the cities of Thebes and Meroe, and carried on an extensive commerce with India and Arabia, but are now degraded to the lowest rank of society, and hunted like wild beasts, in certain seasons of the year.

The Shangalla, says the last-mentioned traveller, are divided into distinct tribes; or, as it is called, different nations, living each separately, in distinct territories, each under the government of the chief of its own name, and each family of that name under the jurisdiction of its own chief or head.

These Shangalla, during the fair half of the year, live under the shade of trees, the lowest branches of which they cut, near the stem, on the upper part, and then bend or break them down, planting the ends of the branches in the earth. These branches they cover with the skins of wild beasts. After this they cut away all the small or superfluous branches in the inside, and so form a spacious pavilion, which, at a distance, appears like a tent, the tree serving for a pole in the middle of it, and the large top overshadowing it, so as to make a very picturesque appearance.

Every tree then is a house, under which live a multitude of black inhabitants, until the tropical rains begin. It is then they hunt the elephant, which they kill by many various devices, as they do the rhinoceros and the other large creatures. Those who reside where water abounds, with the same industry kill the nippopotami, or river-horses, which are exceedingly numerous in the pools of the stagnant rivers. Where this flat belt or country is broadest, the trees thickest, and the water in the largest pools, there the most powerful nations live, who have often defeated the royal army of Abyssinia, and constantly laid waste, and sometimes nearly conquered, the provinces of Tigre and Sire, the most warlike and most populous part of Abyssinia.

The soil of the country they inhabit, when wet by the tropical rains and dissolving into mire, forces these savages to seek for winter quarters. Their tents under the trees being no longer tenable, they retire, with their respective foods, all dried in the sun, into caves dug into the heart of the mountains, which are not in this country be-altes, marble, or alabaster, as is all that ridge which runs down into Egypt, along the side of the Red sea, but are of a soft, gritty, sandy stone, easily excavated and formed into different apartments. Into these, made generally in the steepest part of the mountain, do these savages retire, to shun the rains, living upon the flesh they have already prepared in the fair weather.

I cannot, says Mr. Bruce, give over the account of the Shangalla, without delivering them again out of their caves, because this return includes the history of an operation never heard of perhaps in Europe, and by which considerable light is thrown upon antient history. No sooner does the sun pass the zenith, going southward, than the rains instantly cease; and the thick canopy of clouds, which had obscured the sky during their continuance, being removed, the sun appears in a beautiful sky, of pale blue, dappled with small thin clouds, which soon after disappear, and leave the heavens of a most beautiful azure. A very few days of the intense heat then dries the ground so perfectly that it gapes in chasms; the grass, struck at the roots by the rays, supports itself no more, but droops and becomes parched. To clear this away the Shangalla set fire to it, which runs, with incredible violence, the whole breadth of Africa, passing under the trees, and following the dry grass among the branches, with such velocity as not to hurt the trees, but to occasion every leaf to fall.

A proper distance is preserved between each habitation, and round the principal watering-places; and here the Shangalla again fix their tents, in the manner before

described. Nothing can be more beautiful than these shady habitations; but they have this fatal effect, that they are discernable from the high grounds, and guide their enemies to the places inhabited.

When a settlement of these savages is surprised, the men are all slain, the women frequently destroy themselves, and the children are brought up by the king, who has a guard composed of their youth.

The next nation he supposes to have settled in Abyssinia were the Nubian shepherds, who served as carriers to the Troglodytes, in their commerce with Egypt and Arabia. Besides these there are several other nations, one of which is denominated the Falasha, and profess the Jewish religion, though they have lost the language of their ancestors. Others, as the Amhara, Agow of Damot, Agow of Tchera, and Gafat, are supposed to be tribes of Canaanites, who fled from Palestine when it was invaded by Joshua. The Agows and Gafats are pagans, and worship the Nile. The Galla are the most considerable of these stranger nations, and we shall conclude this chapter with an account of their manners.

The Galla originally dwelt, as Mr. Bruce supposes, under the line, and exercised the profession of shepherds, which they still continue to do. For a number of years, our author tells us, they have been constantly migrating northwards, though the cause of this migration is not known. At first they had no horses; the reason of which was that the country they came from did not allow these animals to breed: but as they proceeded northward, and conquered some of the Abyssinian provinces, they soon furnished themselves with such numbers that they are now almost entirely cavalry, making little account of infantry in their armies. On advancing to the frontiers of Abyssinia, the multitude divided, and part directed their course towards the Indian ocean; after which, having made a settlement in the eastern part of the continent, they turned southward into the countries of Bali and Dawaw, which they entirely conquered, and settled there in the year 1537. Another division having taken a westerly course, spread themselves in a semicircle along the banks of the Nile; surrounding the country of Gojan, and passing eastward, behind the country of the Agows, extended their possessions as far as the Gongas and Gafats. Since that time the Nile has been the boundary of their possessions; though they have very frequently plundered and sometimes conquered the Abyssinian provinces on the other side of the river, but have never made any permanent settlement in these parts. A third division has settled to the southward of the low country of Shoa, which the governor of that province has permitted, in order to form a barrier betwixt him and the territories of the emperor, on whom he scarcely acknowledges any dependence.

The Galla are of a brown complexion, and have long black hair; but some of them, who live in the valleys, are entirely black. At first their common food was milk and butter; but since their intercourse with the Abyssinians, they have learned to plough and sow their land and to make bread. They seem to have a predilection for the number of seven, and each of the three divisions already mentioned are subdivided into seven tribes. In their behaviour they are extremely barbarous; and live in continual war with the Abyssinians, whom they murder without mercy, as often as they fall into their hands. They cut off the privities of the men, and hang them up in their houses, by way of trophies; and are so cruel as to rip up women with child, in hopes of destroying a male.

Yet, notwithstanding their excessive cruelty abroad, they live under the strictest discipline at home; and every broil or quarrel is instantly punished, according to the nature of the offence. Each of the three divisions of the Galla above mentioned has a king of its own; and they have also a kind of nobility, from among whom the sovereign can only be chosen; however the commonalty are not excluded from rising to the rank of nobles, if they distinguish themselves very much in battle. None of the nobility can be elected till upwards of 40 years of age, unless he has, with his own hand, killed a number of enemies, which, added to his own age, makes up 40. There is a council of each of the seven tribes, which meets separately, in its own district, to settle how many are to be left behind, for the governing and cultivating the territory and other matters of importance. These nations have all a great veneration for a tree, which grows plentifully in their country, called wanzey, and which these superstitious people are even said to adore as a god. Their assemblies for the choice of a king are all held under one of these trees; and when the sovereign is chosen, they put a bludgeon of this wood in his hand, by way of sceptre, and a garland of the flowers upon his head.

The Galla are reported to be very good soldiers, especially in case of surprize; but, like most other barbarians, have no constancy nor perseverance after the first attack. They will, however, perform extraordinary marches, swimming rivers, holding by the horse's tail, and thus being enabled to do very great mischief, by reason of the rapidity of their movements. They are excellent light horse, for a regular army in a hostile country, but are very indifferently armed, on account of the scarcity of iron among them. Their principal arms are lances, made of wood, sharpened at the end, and hardened in the fire; and their shields are composed only of one single fold of bull's hide; so that they are extremely apt to warp by heat, or become too soft in wet weather. They are exceedingly cruel, and make a shrill horrid noise at the beginning of every engagement, which greatly terrifies the horses, and very often the barbarous riders which oppose them.

The Galla, according to Mr. Bruce's account, are somewhat below the middle size, but extremely light and nimble. The women are fruitful, and suffer so little in child-bearing that they do not confine themselves for a single day after delivery. They plow, sow, and reap the corn, which is trodden out by the cattle; but the men have all the charge of the cattle in the fields. In their customs they are filthy to the last degree; plaiting their hair with the guts of oxen, which they likewise twist round their middle, and which, by the quick putrefaction, occasion an abominable stench. They anoint their heads and whole bodies with butter or grease; in which, as well as in other respects, they greatly resemble the Hottentots. It has been supposed that they have no religion whatever; but Mr. Bruce is of opinion that is a mistake. The wanzey, he says, is undoubtedly worshipped by all the nations as a god; and they have likewise certain stones, which are worshipped as gods; besides these, they worship the moon, and some stars, when in certain positions, and at some particular seasons of the year. They all believe in a resurrection; and have some faint notions of a state of happiness, but no idea of future punishment. Some of them, to the southward, profess the Mahometan religion; but those to the east and west are generally pagans. All of them intermarry with each other; but will not allow strangers to live among them, though the Moors have at last found out a method of trading safely with them. The commodities they deal in are blue Surat cloths, myrrh, and salt.

The marriages among the Galla are celebrated with some of the disgusting customs of the Hottentots; and after these ceremonies the bridegroom promises to give the bride meat and drink while she lives, and bury her when dead. Polygamy is allowed among them; but it is singular that among these people the women solicit their husbands to take others to their embraces. The reason of this custom is that the men may have numerous families of children, who may be capable of defending them against their enemies; as the Galla, according to our author, always fight in families, whether against foreign enemies, or with one another.

CHAPTER II.

Congo and Angola.

CONGO is bounded on the north by the river Zair or Zarah, which divides it from Loango; on the south by the river Danda, which separates it from Angola; on the east by the kingdoms of Fungono and Metamba, and the burnt mountains of the sun, those of crystal or saltpetre, and silver, or (according to Anthony Cavazzi, a late traveller in those parts,) by the mountains of Coanza, Berbela, and the great mountain of Chilandria or Aquilonda; and on the west by that part of the Atlantic ocean called the Ethiopic sea, or the sea of Congo. According to these limits, Congo Proper extends about three degrees from north to south; lying between 6° and 9° south latitude; but widens in its breadth inland, by the course of the river Zair, which runs winding above two degrees more to the north. Its length from east to west is very uncertain, as no observations have been taken of the exact situation of those mountains which bound it.

The history of this kingdom affords but few interesting particulars. Before its discovery by the Portuguese, the history is altogether uncertain and fabulous, as the inhabitants were totally unacquainted with letters and learning. So little were they acquainted with chronology that it is said they did not even distinguish day and night, much less could they compute their time by moons or years; and therefore could remember past transactions only by saying they happened in such a king's reign.

The country was discovered by the Portuguese in 1484. The discoverer was named Diego Cam, an expert and bold sailor. He was very well received by the natives, and sent some of his men with presents to the king; but they being detained, by unexpected accidents, beyond the promised time of their return, Cam was obliged to sail away without them, and took for them four young Congoese, as hostages for the safety of his countrymen. These he taught the Portuguese language, in which they made such progress that king John was highly pleased, and sent them back next year to Congo, with rich presents; charging them to exhort their monarch, in his name, to become a convert to the Christian religion, and permit it to be propagated throughout his dominions. A firm alliance was concluded between the two monarchs, which continues to this day, though not without some interruptions, to which the Portuguese themselves have given occasion more than the natives.

Any particular account we have of this kingdom rests almost entirely on the credit of Anthony Cavazzi, the traveller above mentioned. He was a capuchin-friar, a native of the duchy of Modena, and was sent missionary into those parts by the society de propaganda fide, in the year 1654, and arrived at Congo in the same year. During his stay there, his zeal to make converts made him travel through all these different kingdoms; and the credit he gained, as well as the great employments he was intrusted with, gave him an opportunity of informing himself of every thing relating to them with great exactness. The extent and situation, however, he could not possibly ascertain, for want of instruments; nor hath this defect been since supplied. According to him the dominions

of Congo extended a great deal further eastward and southward before the introduction of Christianity than afterwards; a great number of the states that were under the Congoese monarchs, either as subjects or tributary, having withdrawn their allegiance, out of dislike to them on that account. Not content with opposing the officers and troops that came annually to raise the tribute imposed by the king, they made such frequent and powerful incursions into his dominions, that they obliged him to draw his forces nearer the centre of Congo, to prevent an invasion; by which means the kingdom, from an extent of 600 leagues, was reduced to less than one half.

Congo Proper, being situated within the torrid zone, is liable to excessive heats; as it lies on the southern side of the equinoctial, the seasons are of course opposite to ours. They reckon only two principal seasons, the summer and winter; the former begins in October, and continues till February or March; during which time the sun's rays dart with such force that the atmosphere appears to an European to be in a flame. The excessive heat, however, is mitigated by the equal length of the days and nights, as well as by the winds, breezes, rains, and dews. The winter takes up the other parts of the year; and is said by the natives to be proportionably cold, though to an European it would appear hot. These two seasons they divide into three lesser ones; viz. Massanza, Neasu, Ecundi, Quitombo, Quibiso, and Quibangala.

They now divide their year into 12 lunar months, and begin it in September. They have also weeks, consisting of four days only, the last of which is their sabbath; and on it they religiously abstain from every kind of work. This practice the compilers of the Universal History conjecture to have arisen from the extreme laziness for which this people and indeed all the African nations are so remarkable. To this shameful indolence also is to be ascribed the little produce they reap from their lands, while the Portuguese, settled among them, who are at more pains in the cultivation of theirs, enjoy all manner of plenty. The natives, however, had rather run the risk of the most terrible famines than be at the tenth part of the labour they see the Portuguese take. They seem to think it below them to use any other exercises than those of dancing, leaping, hunting, shooting, &c.; the rest of their time they spend in smoking and downright idleness, committing the laborious part of their household affairs to their slaves, or, in want of them, to their wives. Nothing is more common than to see these poor creatures toiling in the fields and woods, with a child tied to their backs, and fainting under their excessive labour and heavy burdens, or (which is still worse) hunger and thirst. What is yet more surprisingly shameful is, that though they have plenty of domestic animals, which they might easily make use of for cultivating their grounds and for other laborious services, and though they see the Portuguese do it every day to great advantage, yet they will rather see their tender females sink under their toil and labour than be at the trouble of breeding up any of these useful creatures to their assistance.

The ground produces variety of grain, but no corn or rice, except what is cultivated by the Portuguese. Their maize or Indian wheat grows very strong, and is well laden. This, being well ground, they make into bread, or boil with water into a kind of pap. Of this they have four kinds; and of which, resembling what we call French wheat, is produced in plenty, and makes some amends for the want of industry in the people. They cultivate also a variety of the pease and bean kind; but what they chiefly live upon as

most suitable to their lazy disposition, is a kind of nut, like our filberds, which fall to the ground of themselves, and are to be found every where; every nut that falls to the ground producing a new shrub next year. They have scarcely any fruit-trees, but what have been brought thither by the Portuguese. They have various sorts of palm-trees, useful both by their fruit, leaves, and their juice, which is easily converted into wine, also by affording a kind of oil, with which they dress their victuals, though the Europeans use it only to burn in their lamps. They have also a vast number of plants and shrubs, which it would be impossible to describe or enumerate. Wheat is the only thing which the ground will not produce. It pushes forth indeed the straw and the ear; the former of which grows high enough, we are told, to hide a man on horseback; but the latter is empty, without any grain fit for use. Father Labat, however, who had lived a considerable time in some of the American islands, where he had observed the same thing, tells us that he had the curiosity to examine those ears more carefully, and had found some few grains, and that having sowed them afresh, they produced very long ears, full of large heavy grain. Whence he conjectures that if the Portuguese had tried the same experiment in their African settlements, it might perhaps have been attended with the same success.

In the low lands the grass grows so high, rank, and thick, that it becomes one of the most dangerous receptacles for wild beasts, serpents, and other venemous insects: on this account travelling is exceedingly hazardous, as they have few beaten roads in the whole country, and travellers are obliged to march over it through vast plains, in continual danger of being devoured or stung to death; to say nothing of the manifold diseases, produced by the unwholesome dews with which the grass is covered during some part of the day. The only method of guarding against all these evils effectually is by setting fire to the grass in the hot weather, when it is quite parched by the heat of the sun; but even this cannot be done without the greatest danger; because both the wild beasts and venomous reptiles, being roused out of their places of retirement, will fly furiously at those who happen to be in the way. In this case there is no possibility of escaping, but by climbing up the highest trees, or defending ones self by fire-arms or other weapons. In such emergencies the natives have a much better chance than the Europeans; the former being able to climb trees with surprising swiftness, while the latter must be assisted by rope ladders, which they commonly cause their blacks to carry about with them, and to go up and fasten to one of the branches.

The flowers here are exceedingly beautiful and numerous. Almost every field and grove yields a much nobler prospect than the European gardens can boast of, notwithstanding the pains bestowed on their cultivation. The flowers are remarkable, not only for the prodigious variety of their colours, but the vast quantity of heads which grows upon one stalk. In the day-time, indeed, they seem to have lost their natural fragrancy; that being in some measure exhaled by the heat of the sun; but this is amply compensated after its setting, and more especially a little before its rising, when their sweetness is again condensed and revived by the coldness and dews of the night, after which they exhale their various refreshing scents, in a much higher degree than ours. The lilies which there grow naturally in fields, valleys, and woods, excel those of our gardens, not only in their extreme whiteness, but much more in a delightful fragrancy, without offending the head,

as the European lilies do by their faintish sweetness. The tulips, which there grow wild, though generally called Persic, have something so surprisingly charming in the variety and combination of their colours, that they dazzle the eyes of an intense beholder; neither do their flowers grow singly, as with us, but 10 or 12 upon one stalk; and with this double advantage, that they diffuse a very reviving and agreeable sweetness, and continue much longer in their full bloom. Of the same nature are their tuberosus, hyacinths, and other native flowers; which spring up in vast groups, of 100 and 200 from one root, though somewhat smaller than ours; some of them finely variegated, and all of them yielding an agreeable smell. The roses, jessamines, and other exotics, brought thither from Europe or America, come up likewise in great perfection; but require a constant supply of water and a diligent attendance to prevent them from degenerating. The American jessamine, in particular, instead of single flowers will grow up by dozens in a bunch; some of them of an exquisite white, and others of the colour of the most vivid fire.

A vast variety of animals of different kinds are found in the kingdom of Congo; the chief of which is the elephant. This creature is mostly found in the province of Bamba, which abounds with woods, pasture, and plenty of water; the elephants delighting much to bathe themselves during the heat of the day. They commonly go in troops of 100 and more; and some of them are of such a monstrous size that we are told the print of their hoof hath measured four nay seven spans in diameter. From the hair of their tails and that of some other animal, the natives, especially the women, weave themselves collars, bracelets, girdles, &c. with variety of devices and figures, which denote their quality; and are in such esteem that the hair of two elephants' tails is sufficient to buy a slave. The reason of this is that the natives have not the art of taming them, but are obliged to send some of their bravest and stoutest men to hunt them in the woods, which is not done without great labour and danger, they being here exceedingly fierce. The most common way of hunting them is by digging deep holes in the ground, the top of which they cover with branches and leaves, as is practised in most parts of Asia.

Lions, leopards, tygers, wolves, and other beasts of prey abound here in great plenty, and do much damage. Here are also a variety of monkeys, of all sizes and shapes. The zebra, well known for its extreme beauty and swiftness, is also met with in this country. They have also a variety of buffaloes and wild asses; but the dante seems to be an animal peculiar to this kingdom. It is shaped and coloured much like an ox, though not so large. Its skin is commonly bought by the Portuguese, and sent into Germany to be tanned and made into targets, which are then called dantes. The natives make use of their raw hides, dried, to make their shields; which are so tough that no arrow or dart can pierce them; and they are also large enough to cover the whole body. The creature is vastly swift; and when wounded will follow the scent or smoke of the gunpowder with such fury that the hunter is obliged to climb up a tree with all possible speed; and this retreat he always takes care to secure before he ventures to fire. The wounded beast, finding its enemy out of its reach, stays for him at the foot of the tree, and will not stir from it; of which the hunter taking the advantage, dispatches it with repeated shots. The forests of Congo also swarm with wild dogs, who, like the wolves, prey upon the tame cattle, and are so fierce that they will attack armed men. Their teeth

A PERSON of RANK [illegible] CONGO [illegible] SLAVES.

destructive vermin lie so thick upon the paths and highways that a person cannot walk without treading upon them, and having his legs and thighs almost devoured by them. A third sort, of a white and red colour, but very small, will gnaw their way through the hardest wood, penetrate into a strong chest, and in a little while devour all the clothes, linen, and every thing that is in it. A fourth sort, small and black, leave a most intolerable stench upon every thing they touch or crawl over, whether clothes or household-stuff, which are not easily sweetened again; or if they pass over victuals they are entirely spoiled. A fifth sort harbour chiefly on the leaves and branches of trees; and if a man chance to climb up thither, to save himself from a wild beast, he is so tormented by them, that nothing but the fear of the jaws of the one could make him endure the stings of the other. A sixth sort is of the flying kind; and is probably one of the former kinds, that live wholly under-ground, till nature furnishes them with wings. After this they rise in such swarms as darken the air, and would make terrible havoc among all kinds of vegetables, did not the natives come out against them in whole companies, and by dint of flaps and other flat weapons knock them down by myriads, and then laying them in heaps, set fire to their wings, which half broils them for food. Amidst all this variety of pernicious insects, however, they have one species, of a more friendly and profitable kind, viz. the industrious bee, which furnishes the inhabitants with honey and wax in such plenty that there is scarce a hollow tree, clift of rock, or chop of the earth, in which their combs are not found in great quantities.

The complexion of the natives, both men and women, is black, though not in the same degree; some being of a much deeper black than others. Their hair is black and finely curled; some have it also of a dark sandy colour; their eyes are mostly of a fine lively black, but some are of a dark sea colour. They have neither flat noses nor thick lips, like the negroes: their stature is mostly of a middle size, and, excepting their black complexion, they much resemble the Portuguese. In their temper they are mistrustful, envious, jealous, and treacherous; and where they once take a distaste or affront, will spare no pains nor stick at any means, however base, to be avenged of and crush their enemy under their feet. There is no such thing among them as natural affection. A husband, if a heathen, may take as many wives as he pleases; and if a Christian, any number of concubines, whom he may divorce at pleasure, or even sell them, though with child. So little regard have they for their children, that there is scarce one among them who will not sell a son or a daughter, or perhaps both, for a piece of cloth, a collar, or girdle, or coral, or beads, and often for a bottle of wine or brandy.

The religion of the Congoese in many parts is downright idolatry, accompanied with the most ridiculous superstitions, and the most absurd and detestable rites, invented by their gangas or priests; and even in those parts where Christianity is professed it is so darkened by superstitions of one kind or other, that we may almost question whether the people are any gainers by the exchange.

St. Salvador is the chief place of traffic the Portuguese and other Europeans have in this country. There are thought to be about 4000 of them settled here, who trade with most parts of the kingdom. The chief commodities they bring thither are either the product of Brazil or European manufactures. The former consist chiefly of grains, fruits, plants, &c.; the latter of Turkey carpets, English cloth, and other stuffs; copper, brass

vessels, some kinds of blue earthen ware, rings, and ornaments of gold, silver, and other baser metals; coral, glass beads, bugles, and other trinkets; light stuffs, made of cotton, linen, and woollen, for cloathing, and a great variety of tools and other utensils. In return for these they carry off a great number of slaves, amounting to 15 or 16,000 annually, as we have already observed. Formerly also they used to carry away elephants' teeth, furs, and other commodities of the country; but these branches of commerce are now greatly decayed, and the slave-trade is what the Portuguese merchants principally depend on.

Angola lies, according to the most probable accounts, between latitude 8° 30′ and 16° 21′ south, forming a waste of upwards of 480 miles; but how far it extends from west to east has never been exactly determined. Angola Proper is bounded on the north by the river Danda, which separates it from Congo; and on the south by the Coanza, by which it is separated from Benguela. This last, however, is now included in the kingdom of Angola, having been conquered by its monarchs, though it still retains the name of kingdom, and is included in the dimensions we have just now given. The air here is very hot and unwholesome, and the country mountainous; there being but few plains to be met with in it, except on the sea-coast, and between the huge ridges of mountains.

This country is governed by Portuguese viceroys, under whom its consequence has considerably declined. The manners, religion, dress, &c. of the inhabitants are much the same with those of the Congoese.

CHAPTER III.

The Western Isles, Azores, Canaries, Cape de Verd Islands, and St. Helena.

THE Azores are islands in the Atlantic ocean, subject to the Portuguese, and lying between 25° and 33° of west longitude, and between 36° and 40° of north latitude. They were discovered by the Flemings in the 15th century. They are seven in number; viz. Tercera, St. Michael's, St. Mary's, Graciosa, St. George's island, Pico, and Fayal.

Tercera, one of the largest of these islands, is about 40 miles in circumference, and surrounded with craggy rocks, which render it almost inaccessable; the soil is fertile, abounding in corn, wine, and fruits, and they have such plenty of cattle that they supply the ships therewith that call there. However their principal trade is wood. The inhabitants are lively and well made, and they pretend to a great deal of religion and gallantry at the same time. They pique themselves upon points of honour, and are extremely revengeful. It is their custom to rove about in the night-time in quest of intrigues, and seldom fail in finding women for their purpose. Angra is the capital town.

The island of Pico is so called from some lofty mountains on it, or rather from one very high mountain, terminating, like Teneriffe, in a peak, and reputed by some writers equal to it in height. This island lies about four leagues south-west from St. George, 12 from Tercera, and about three leagues south-east of Fayal; in west longitude 28° 21′ and north latitude 38° 29′. The mountain Pico, which gives name to the island, is filled with dismal dark caverns or volcanoes, which frequently vomit out flames, smoke, and ashes, to a great distance. The circumference of Pico is computed at about 15 leagues; and its most remarkable places are Pico, Lagoas, Santa Cruce or Cruz, San Sebastian, Pesquin, San Rocko, Playa, and Magdalena; the inhabitants of which live wholly on the produce of the island, in great felicity. The cattle are various, numerous, and excellent in their several kinds: it is the same with the vine, and its juice is prepared into different wines, the best in the Azores. Besides cedar and other timber, they have a kind of wood, which they call texico, solid and hard as iron, and veined, when finely polished, like a rich scarlet tabby, which colour it has in great perfection. The longer it is kept the more beautiful it grows; hence it is that the texico-tree is felled only for the king's use or by his order, and is prohibited from being exported as a common article of trade.

The Canaries were formerly called the fortunate islands, on account of the temperate healthy air and excellent fruits. The land is very fruitful, for both wheat and barley produce 130 for one. The cattle thrive well, and the woods are full of all sorts of game. The Canary singing-birds are well known all over Europe. There are here sugar-canes in great abundance; but the Spaniards first planted vines here, from whence we have the vine called Canary or Sack.

These islands were not entirely unknown to the antients, but they were a long while forgot, till John de Betencourt discovered them in 1402. It is said they were first inhabited by the Phœnicians or Carthaginians, but on no certain foundation; nor could the

inhabitants themselves tell from whence they were derived; on the contrary, they did not know there was any other country in the world. Their language, manners, and customs, had no resemblance to those of their neighbours. However they were like the people on the coast of Barbary in complexion. They had no iron. After the discovery, the Spaniards soon got possession of them all, under whose dominions they are to this day, except Madeira, which belongs to the Portuguese. The inhabitants are chiefly Spaniards, though there are some of the first people remaining, whom they call Gaunches, who are somewhat civilized by their intercourse with the Spaniards. They are a hardy, active, bold people, and live on the mountains. Their chief food is goats' milk; their complexion is tawny, and their noses flat. The Spanish vessels, when they sail for the West Indies, always rendezvous at those islands going and coming. Their number is twelve: 1. Alegranza; 2. Canaria; 3. Ferro; 4. Fuerteventura; 5. Gomera; 6. Gratiosa; 7. Lancerotta; 8. Madeira; 9. Palma; 10. Rocca; 11. Salvages; 12. Teneriff; west longitude from 12° to 21°; north latitude from 27° 30′ to 29° 30′.

Canaria is about 100 miles in circumference and 33 in diameter. It is a fruitful island, and famous for the wine that bears its name. It also abounds with apples, melons, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, olives, peaches, and plantains: the fir and palm-trees are the most common. The towns are Canary, the capital, Gauldera, and Geria.

Canary or Cividad de Palmas is the capital of the island of Canaria, with an indifferent castle and a bishop's see. It has also a court of inquisition, and the supreme council of the rest of the Canary islands, as also four convents, two for men and two for women. The town is about three miles in compass, and contains 12,000 inhabitants; the houses are only one story high, and flat at the top, but they are well built; the cathedral is a handsome structure. West longitude 15° 20′; north latitude 28° 4′.

Madeiras, a cluster of islands, situated in the Atlantic ocean, in west longitude 16°, and between 32° and 33° north latitude. The largest of them, called Madeira, from which the rest take their name, is about 55 English miles long and 10 miles broad, and was first discovered on the 2nd of July, in the year 1419, by Joao Gonzales Zarco; there being no historical foundation for the fabulous report of its being discovered by one Machin, an Englishman. It is divided into two capitanias, named Funchal and Maxico, from the towns of those names: the former contains two judicatures, viz. Funchal and Calhetta; the latter being a town, with the title of a county, belonging to the family of Castello Melhor: the second capitania likewise comprehends two judicatures, viz. Maxico (read Mashico) and San Vicente.

Funchal is the only cidade or city in this island; which has also seven villas or towns, of which there are four, Calhetta, Camara de Lobs, Ribeira Braba, and Ponta de Sol, in the capitania of Funchal, which is divided into 26 parishes: the other three are in the capitania of Maxico, which consists of 17 parishes; these towns are called Maxico, San Vicente, and Santa Cruz.

The governor is at the head of the civil and military departments of this island, of Porto Santo, the Salvages, and the Ilhas Desartas; which last only contain the temporary huts of some fishermen, who resort thither in pursuit of their business.

The law department is under the corregidor, who is appointed by the king of Portugal,

commonly sent from Lisbon, and holds his place during the king's pleasure. All causes come to him from inferior courts by appeal. Each judicature has a senate; and a juiz or judge, whom they choose, presides over them. At Funchal he is called Juiz da Fora; and in the absence or after the death of the corregidor acts as his deputy. The foreign merchants elect their own judges, called the providor, who is at the same time collector of the king's customs and revenues, which amount in all to about 12,000*l.* sterling. Far the greatest part of this sum is applied towards the salaries of civil and military officers, the pay of troops, and the maintenance of public buildings. This revenue arises first from the tenth of all the produce of this island, belonging to the king, by virtue of his office as grand-master of the order of Christ; secondly from 10 per cent. duties laid on all imports, provisions excepted; and last from the 11 per cent. charged on all exports.

The island has but one company of regular soldiers of 100 men; the rest of the military force is a militia, consisting of 3000 men, divided into companies, each commanded by a captain, who has one lieutenant under him and one ensign. No pay is given either to the private men or the officers of this militia; and yet their places are much sought after, on account of the rank which they communicate: these troops are embodied once a-year, and exercised once a month. All the military are commanded by the serjeant mòr: the governor has two capitanos de sal about him, who do duty as aides-de-camp.

The secular priests on this island are about 1200, many of whom are employed as private tutors. Since the expulsion of the jesuits no regular public school is to be found here, unless we except a seminary, where a priest, appointed for that purpose, instructs and educates ten students at the king's expence. These wear a red cloak over the usual black gowns worn by students. All those who intend to go into orders are obliged to qualify themselves by studying in the university of Coimbra, lately re established in Portugal. There is also a dean and chapter at Madeira, with a bishop at their head, whose income is considerably greater than the governor's; it consists of 110 pipes of wine and 40 muys of wheat, each containing 24 bushels, which amounts in common years to 3000*l.* sterling. Here are likewise 60 or 70 Franciscan friars, in four monasteries, one of which is at Funchal. About 300 nuns live on the island, in four convents, of the order of Merci, Sta, Clara, Incarnacao, and Bom Jesus. Those of the last-mentioned institution may marry whenever they choose, and leave their monastery.

In the year 1768 the inhabitants living in the 43 parishes of Madeira amounted to 53,913; of whom there were 31,341 males and 32,572 females. But in that year 5243 persons died, and no more than 2198 children were born; so that the number of the dead exceeded that of the born by 3045. It is highly probable that some epidemical distemper carried off so disproportionate a number in that year, as the island would shortly be entirely depopulated if the mortality were always equal to this. Another circumstance concurs to strengthen this supposition, namely the excellence of the climate: the weather is in general mild and temperate; in summer the heat is very moderate on the higher parts of their island, whither the better sort of people retire for that season; and in winter the snow remains there for several days, whilst it is never known to continue above a day or two in the lower parts.

The common people of this island are of a tawny colour and well shaped; though they have large feet, owing, perhaps to the efforts they are obliged to make in climbing the

craggy paths of this mountainous country: their faces are oblong, their eyes dark, their black hair naturally falls in ringlets, and begins to crisp in some individuals, which may, perhaps, be owing to intermarriages with negroes; in general they are hard-featured, but not disagreeable: their women are too frequently ill-favoured, and want the florid complexion, which, when united to a pleasing assemblage of regular features, gives our northern fair ones the superiority over all their sex; they are small, have prominent cheek-bones, large feet, an ungraceful gait, and the colour of the darkest brunette: the just proportion of the body, the fine form of their hands, and their large lively eyes seem in some measure to compensate for these defects. The labouring men in summer wear linen trowsers, a coarse shirt, a large hat, and boots; some have a short jacket, made of cloth, and a long cloak, which they sometimes carry over their arm: the women wear a petticoat, and a short corselet or jacket, closely fitting their shapes, which is a simple and often not an inelegant dress: they have also a short but wide cloak; and those that are unmarried tie their hair on the crown of the head, on which they wear no covering.

The country people are exceeding sober and frugal, their diet in general consisting of bread and onions or other roots, and little animal-food. However they avoid eating tripe or any offals, because it is proverbially said of a very poor man. "He is reduced to eat tripe." Their common drink is water, or an infusion of the remaining rind or skin of the grape (after it has passed through the wine-press), which, when fermented, acquires some tartness and acidity, but cannot be kept very long: the wine for which the island is so famous, and which their own hands prepare, seldom if ever regales them.

Their principal occupation is the planting and raising of vines; but as that branch of agriculture requres little attendance during the greatest part of the year, they naturally incline to idleness. The warmth of the climate, which renders great provision against the inclemencies of weather unnecessary, and the ease with which the cravings of appetite are satisfied, must tend to indolence, wherever the regulations of the legislature do not counteract it, by endeavouring, with the prospect of increasing happiness, to infuse the spirit of industry. It seems the Portuguese government does not pursue the proper methods against this dangerous lethargy of the state; they have lately ordered the plantation of olive trees here on such spots as are too dry and barren to bear vines, but they have not thought of giving temporary assistance to the labourers, and have offered no premium by which these might be induced to conquer their reluctance to innovations and aversion to labour.

The vineyards are held only on an annual tenure, and the farmer reaps but five-tenths of the produce, since four other tenths are paid to the king and one to the clergy. Such small profits, joined to the thought of toiling merely for the advantage of others, if improvements were attempted, entirely preclude the hopes of a future increase. Oppressed as they are, they have, however, preserved a high degree of cheerfulness and contentment; their labours are commonly alleviated with songs, and in the evening they assemble from different cottages, to dance to the drowsy music of a guittar.

The inhabitants of the towns are more ill-favoured than the country-people, and often pale and lean. The men wear French clothes, commonly black, which do not seem to fit them, and have been in fashion in the polite world about half a century ago. Their ladies are delicate, and have agreeable features; but the characteristic jealousy of the men still

locks them up, and deprives them of a happiness which the country-women, in all their distresses, enjoy. Many of the better people are a sort of petite noblesse, which we would call gentry, whose genealogical pride makes them unsociable and ignorant, and causes a ridiculous affectation of gravity. The landed property is in the hands of a few antient families, who live at Funchal, and in the various towns on the island.

Madeira consists of one large mountain, whose branches rise every where from the sea towards the centre of the island, converging to the summit, in the midst of which is a depression or excavation, called the val by the inhabitants, always covered with a fresh and delicate herbage. The stones on the island seem to have been in the fire, are full of holes, and of a blackish colour; in short, the greater part of them are lava. A few of them are of a kind which the Derbyshire miners call dun-stone. The soil of the whole island is a tarras, mixed with some particles of clay, lime, and sand, and has much the same appearance as some earths on the isle of Ascension. From this circumstance and from the excavation of the summit of the mountain, it is probable that in some remote period a volcano has produced the lava and the ochreous particles, and that the val was formerly its crater.

Many brooks and small rivulets descend from the summits, in deep chasms or glens, which separate the various parts of the island. The beds of the brooks are in some places covered with stones of all sizes, carried down from the higher parts by the violence of winter-rains or floods of melted snow. The water is conducted by wears and channels in the vineyards, where each proprietor has the use of it for a certain time; some being allowed to keep a constant supply of it, some to use it thrice, others twice, and others only once a week. As the heat of the climate renders this supply of water to the vineyards absolutely necessary, it is not without great expence that a new vineyard can be planted, for the maintenance of which the owners must purchase water, at a high price, from those who are constantly supplied, and are thus enabled to spare some of it.

Wherever a level piece of ground can be contrived in the higher hills, the natives make plantations of eddoes, enclosed by a kind of dike, to cause a stagnation, as that plant succeeds best in swampy ground. Its leaves serve as food for hogs, and the country-people use the roots for their own nourishment.

The sweet potatoe is planted for the same purpose, and makes a principal article of diet; together with chesnuts, which grow in extensive woods, on the higher parts of the island, where the vine will not thrive. Wheat and barley are likewise sown, especially in spots where the vines are decaying through age, or where they are newly planted. But the crops do not produce above three months' provisions, and the inhabitants are therefore obliged to have recourse to other food, besides importing considerable quantities of corn from North America, in exchange for wine. The want of manure and the inactivity of the people are in some measure the causes of this disadvantage; but supposing husbandry to be carried to its perfection here, they could not raise corn sufficient for their consumption. They make their threshing-floors of a circular form, in a corner of a field, which is cleared and beaten solid for the purpose. The sheaves are laid round about it, and a square board, stuck full of sharp flints below, is dragged over them by a pair of oxen, the driver getting on it to increase its weight. This machine cuts the straw as if it had been chopped, and frees the grain from the husk, from which it is afterwards separated.

The great produce of Madeira is the wine from which it has acquired fame and support. Where the soil, exposure, and supply of water will admit of it, the vine is cultivated. One or more walks, about a yard or two wide, intersect each vineyard, and are included by stone walls two feet high. Along these walks, which are arched over with laths about seven feet high, they erect wooden pillars, at regular distances, to support a lattice-work of bamboos, which slopes down from both sides of the walk, till it is only a foot and a half or two feet high, in which elevation it extends over the whole vineyard. The vines are in this manner supported from the ground, and the people have room to root out the weeds which spring up between them. In the season of the vintage they creep under this lattice-work, cut off the grapes, and lay them into baskets: some bunches of the grapes weigh six pounds and upwards. This method of keeping the ground clean and moist and ripening the grapes in the shade, contributes to give the Madeira wines that excellent flavour and body for which they are remarkable. The owners of vineyards are, however, obliged to allot a certain spot of ground for the growth of bamboos, for the lattice-work cannot be made without them; and it is said some vineyards lie neglected for want of this useful reed.

All the domestic animals of Europe are likewise found at Madeira, and their mutton and beef, though small, is very well tasted; their horses are small but sure-footed; and with great agility climb the difficult paths which are the only means of communication with the country. They have no wheel-carriages of any kind; but in the town they use a sort of drays or sledges, formed of two pieces of plank, joined by cross pieces, which make an acute angle before: these are drawn by oxen, and are used to transport casks of wine and other heavy goods to and from the warehouses.

The animals of the feathered tribe, which live wild here, are more numerous than the wild quadrupeds; there being only the common grey rabbit here, as a representative of the last-mentioned class. Tame birds, such as turkeys, geese, ducks, and hens, are very rare, which is perhaps owing to the scarcity of corn.

Ferro is a very dry island, affording no water but what is supplied by the fountain-tree, which is thus described by the author of the history of the discovery and conquest. The district in which this tree stands is called Tigulahe; near to which, and in the cliff or steep rocky ascent that surrounds the whole island, is a narrow gutter or gulley, which commences at the sea and continues to the summit of the cliff, where it joins or coincides with a valley, which is terminated by the steep front of a rock. On the top of this rock grows a tree, in antient language called garse, "sacred or holy tree;" which for many years has been preserved sound, entire, and fresh. Its leaves constantly distil such a quantity of water as is sufficient to furnish drink to every living creature in Ferro; nature having provided this remedy for the drought of the island. It is situated about a league and a half from the sea. Nobody knows of what species it is, only that it is called Til. It is distinct from other trees, and stands by itself; the circumference of the trunk is about 12 spans, the diameter four, and in height, from the ground to the top of the highest branch, 40 spans; the circumference of all the branches together is 120 feet. The branches are thick and extended: the lowest commence about the height of an ell from the ground. Its fruit resembles the acorn, and tastes something like the kernel of a pine-apple, but is softer and more aromatic. The leaves of this tree resemble those of the laurel, but are

larger, wider, and more curved; they come forth in a perpetual succession, so that the tree always remains green. Near to it grows a thorn, which fastens on many of its branches and interweaves with them; and at a small distance from the garse are some beech-trees, bresos, and thorns. On the north side of the trunk are two large tanks or cisterns, of rough stone, or rather one cistern divided, each half being 20 feet square and 16 spans in depth. One of these contains water for the drinking of the inhabitants; and the other that which they use for their cattle, washing, and such like purposes. Every morning, near this part of the island, a cloud or mist arises from the sea, which the south and easterly winds force against the fore-mentioned steep cliff; so that the cloud having no vent but by the gutter, gradually ascends it, and from thence advances slowly to the extremity of the valley, whence it is stopped and checked by the front of the rock, which terminates the valley, and then rests upon the thick leaves and wide-spreading branches of the tree, from whence it distils in drops during the remainder of the day, until it is at length exhausted, in the same manner that we see water drip from the leaves of trees after a heavy shower of rain. This distillation is not peculiar to the garse or til; for the bresos, which grows near it, likewise drops water; but their leaves being but few and narrow, the quantity is so trifling, that though the natives save some of it, yet they make little or no account of any but what distils from the til, which, together with the water of some fountains, and what is saved in the winter season, is sufficient to serve them and their flocks. This tree yields most water in those years when the Levant or easterly winds have prevailed for a continuance; for by these winds only the clouds or mists are drawn hither from sea. A person lives on the spot near which this tree grows, who is appointed by the council to take care of it and its water, and is allowed a house to live in, with a certain salary. He every day distributes to each family of the district seven pots or vessels full of water, besides what he gives to the principal people in the island.

Teneriff is the most considerable of these islands, for riches, trade, and extent, and is besides noted for the celebrated peak, an extinguished volcano, whose perpendicular height is by some estimated at two miles, and by others increased as far as five.

The islands of Cape de Verd are seated in the Atlantic ocean, about 400 miles west of the cape. They are between 13° and 19° of latitude, and the principal are ten in number, lying in a semicircle. Their names are St. Antony, St. Vincent, St Lucia, St. Nicholas, the Isle of Sal, Bona Vista, Mayo, St. Jago, Fuego, and Brava.

St. Antonio has a good road for shipping, with a collection of fresh water rising from springs, which, however, scarcely merits the name of a pond. The island stretches from north-east to south-west, and is filled with mountains, one of which is of so extraordinary a height as to be compared with the peak of Teneriff Its top is constantly covered with snow, and notwithstanding the clearness of the sky, is generally hid in clouds. Here are produced a variety of fruits; oranges, lemons, palms, melons, &c. and some sugar-canes. The potatoes and melons are particularly excellent, and are much sought after by mariners. But, notwithstanding all this plenty, the inhabitants live in the most wretched poverty. They are in number about 500, chiefly negroes, under the protection of the Portuguese, whose language they speak, and imitate their manners.

Mayo is about 17 miles in circumference. The soil in general is very barren, and water scarce; however they have some corn, yams, potatoes, and plantains, with plenty

of beeves, goats, and asses. What trees there are grow on the sides of the hills, and they have some figs and water-melons. The sea round about the island abounds with fish. The chief commodity is salt, with which many English ships are loaded in the summer time. The principal town is Pinosa, inhabited by negroes, who speak the Portuguese language, and are stout, lusty, and fleshy. They are not above 200 in number, and many of them go quite naked. West longitude 21° 25′; north latitude 15° 5′.

St. Jago is the largest, most populous, and fertile of these islands. It lies about 15 miles eastward from the island of Mayo, and abounds with high barren mountains; but the air in the rainy season is very unwholesome to strangers. Its produce is sugar, cotton, wine, and some excellent fruits. The animals are black cattle, horses, asses, deer, goats, hogs, civet-cats, and some very pretty green monkeys with black faces.

Fuego is much higher than any of the rest, and seems at sea to be one single mountain, though on all sides there are deep valleys. There is a volcano at the top, which burns continually, and may be seen a great way off at sea. It vomits a great deal of fire and smoke, and throws out huge pieces of rock to a vast height, and sometimes torrents of melted matter run down the sides.

Brava is remarkable for its excellent wines. The land is very high, and consists of mountains, which look like pyramids. It abounds in Indian corn, gourds, water-melons, potatoes, horses, asses and hogs. There is also plenty of fish on the coast, and the island produces saltpetre. West longitude 25° 35′; north latitude 14°.

St. Helena belongs to the English East India company, and is situated in west longitude 6° 30′; south latitude 16°. The greatest length of the island is about eight miles, and its circumference about 20. It hath some high mountains, particularly one called Diana's peak, which is covered with woods to the very top. Other hills there are, which bear evident marks of a volcanic origin; and some have huge rocks of lava, and a kind of half vitrified flags. The country, according to Mr. Forster, has a fine appearance; the soil is in many places a rich mould, from six to ten inches deep, and a variety of plants thrive in it luxuriantly.

The island is laid out entirely in gardens and pasturage. Peaches are the only European fruits which thrive here. The number of people on St. Helena does not exceed 2000 persons, including 500 soldiers and 600 slaves; and it is said that the number of females born on the island considerably exceeds that of the males. By the arrival of the India ships, which they supply with refreshments, they are, in return, provided with all sorts of manufactures and other necessaries; and the company annually order one or two of their ships to touch there, in their way to India, in order to send them a sufficient quantity of European goods and provisions. Many of their slaves are employed in catching fish, which are very plentiful; and by the help of these, together with their poultry, cattle, roots, and salt provisions, they subsist through the year. Their life seems to pass along very happily, free from care and anxiety.

VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK X.

Mahometan Africa.

CHAPTER I.

Barbary.

THIS country contains almost the whole of what the Romans possessed of the continent of Africa, excepting Egypt. It stretches itself in length, from east to west, beginning at the southern limits of Egypt to the straits of Gibralter, full 35 degrees of longitude, and from thence to Santa Cruz, the utmost western edge of it, about six more, in all 41 degrees; so that the utmost length of Barbary, from east to west, is computed at above 759 German leagues. On the south indeed it is confined within much narrower bounds, extending no farther than from 27° to 35½° of north latitude; so that its utmost broadth from north to south does not exceed 128 German miles. More particularly, Barbary begins on the west of the famed mount Atlas, called by the Arabs Ay Duacal or Al Duacal, inclosing the antient kingdoms of Suez and Dela, now provinces of Morocco; thence stretching north-eastward, along the Atlantic, to the pillars of Hercules, at cape Finisterre; then along the coast of the Mediterranean, it is at last bounded by the city of Alexandria in Egypt.

Barbary was antiently divided into Lybia, Africa Proper, Numidia, and Mauritania. Lybia was subdivided into Cyrenaica, Marmarica, and the Regio Syrtica.

Cyrenaica comprehended the desert of Barca and part of the kingdom of Tripoli. It was originally inhabited by a number of barbarous nations, differing little from great gangs of robbers. Afterwards some colonies from Greece settled here, and Cyrenaica became so powerful a state that it waged war with Egypt and Carthage often with success. In the time of Darius Hystaspes, Arcesilaus, the reigning prince in Cyrenaica, was driven from the throne; on which his mother, Phretima, applied for assistance to the king of Cyprus. Her son, afterwards returning to Barca, the chief city of Cyrene, was there assassinated, together with his father-in-law. Phretima, finding herself disappointed by the king of Cyprus, applied to Darius Hystaspes, and by the assistance of the Persians reduced Barca. Here she behaved with the utmost cruelty, causing all those who had been concerned in her son's death to be impaled, and the breasts of their wives to be cut off, and affixed near them. She is said to have been afterwards devoured by worms;

which was looked upon as a divine judgment for her excessive cruelty. The prisoners in the mean time were sent to Darius, who settled them in a district of Bactria, from them called Barca. Cyrenaica, however, seems to have remained free, till the time of Alexander the Great, who conquered it along with Egypt. Soon after his death the inhabitants recovered their liberty, but were in a short time reduced by Ptolemy, king of Egypt. Under these kings it remained till Ptolemy Physcon made it over to his bastard son Apian, who, in the 658th year of Rome left it by will to the Romans. The senate permitted all the cities to be governed by their own laws; this immediately filled the country with tyrants; those who were most potent in every city or district endeavoured to assume the sovereignty of it. Thus the kingdom was thrown into great confusion; but Lucullus in a good measure restored the public tranquillity, on his coming thither during the first Mithridatic war. It was found impossible, however, totally to suppress these disturbances, till the country was reduced to the form of a Roman province, which happened about 20 years after the death of Apian, and 76 before Christ. Upon a revolt, the city of Cyrene was ruined by the Romans, but they afterwards rebuilt it.

We have no distinct history of Marmarica and the Regio Syrtica. The principal city in proper Africa was the celebrated Carthage.

This city was founded by Dido, a Phœnician exile, about 80 or 100 years before the building of Rome. The Carthaginians applied themselves early to maritime affairs, and were formidable by sea in the time of Cyrus and Cambyses. From Diodorus Siculus and Justin it appears that the principal support of the Carthaginians were the mines of Spain; in which country they seem to have established themselves very early. By means of the riches drawn from these mines, they were enabled to equip such formidable fleets as we are told they fitted out in the time of Cyrus and Cambyses. Justin insinuates that the first Carthaginian settlement in Spain happened when the city Gades, now Cadis, was but of late standing, or even in its infancy. The Spaniards, finding this new colony begin to flourish, attacked it with a numerous army, insomuch that the inhabitants were obliged to call in the Carthaginians to their aid. The latter very readily granted their request; and not only repulsed the Spaniards, but made themselves masters of almost the whole province in which their new city stood. By this success they were encouraged to attempt the conquest of the whole country; but having to do with very warlike nations, they could not push their conquests to any great length at first; and it appears, from the accounts of Livy and Polybius, that the greatest part of Spain remained unsubdued till the times of Hamilcar, Asdrubal, and Hannibal.

About 500 years before Christ they carried their arms into Sicily, but were never able wholly to conquer that island. Their interference in Sicilian affairs produced the first punic war, which began 256 years before Christ, and was terminated by a disadvantageous peace; by which they stipulated to pay the expences of the war, restore the Roman captives and deserters without ransom, while their own prisoners were redeemed with money, and finally to abandon all their possessions in Sicily, as well as their little islands between Sicily and Italy. To this succeeded a war with the African mercenaries, in which, although they ultimately prevailed, they suffered the most severe losses, without any possibility of gaining adequate advantages.

The Carthaginians had made peace with the Romans solely because they were no

longer able to continue the war. They therefore took the earliest opportunity of breaking the treaty; they besieged Saguntum, a city of Spain, which had been in alliance with Rome; and though desired to desist, prosecuted their operations with vigour. Ambassadors were sent in consequence from Rome to Carthage, complaining of the infraction of their articles, and requiring that Hannibal, the Carthaginian general, who had advised this measure, should be delivered up; which being refused, both sides prepared for a second punic war.

The Carthaginians trusted the management of it to Hannibal. This extraordinary man had been made the sworn foe of Rome almost from his infancy; for while yet very young, his father brought him before the altar, and obliged him to take an oath that he would never be in friendship with the Romans, nor desist from opposing their power, until he or they should be no more. On his first appearance in the field, he united in his own person the most masterly method of commanding with the most perfect obedience to his superiors. Thus he was equally beloved by his generals and the troops he was appointed to lead. He was possessed of the greatest courage in opposing danger, and the greatest presence of mind in retiring from it. No fatigue was able to subdue his body, nor any misfortune to break his spirit: he was equally patient of heat and cold, and he took sustenance merely to content nature. He was the best horseman and swiftest runner of the time. This great general, who is considered as the most skilful commander of antiquity, having over-run all Spain, and levied a large army of various languages and nations, resolved to carry the war into Italy itself, as the Romans had before carried it into the dominions of Carthage. For this purpose, leaving Hanno with a sufficient force to guard his conquests in Spain, he crossed the Pyrenean mountains into Gaul, with an army of 50,000 foot and 9000 horse. He quickly traversed that country, which was then wild and extensive, and filled with nations that were his declared enemies. In vain its forests and rivers appeared to intimidate; in vain the Rhone, with its rapid current, and its banks covered with enemies, or the Dura, branched out into numberless channels, opposed his way: he passed them all with undaunted spirit, and in ten days arrived at the foot of the Alps, over which he was to explore a new passage into Italy. It was in the midst of winter when this astonishing project was undertaken: the season added new horrors to the scene: the prodigious height and the tremendous steepness of these mountains, capped with snow; the people, barbarous and fierce, dressed in skins of long and shaggy hair, presented a picture that impressed the beholders with astonishment and terror. But nothing was capable of subduing the courage of the Carthaginian general. At the end of 15 days, spent in crossing the Alps, he found himself in the plains of Italy, with about half his army, the other half had died of the cold, or been cut off by the natives.

As soon as it was known at Rome that Hannibal, at the head of an immense army, was crossing the Alps, the senate sent Scipio to oppose him, but he was obliged to retreat, with considerable loss. In the mean time, Hannibal, thus victorious, took the most prudent precautions to increase his army, giving orders always to spare the possessions of the Gauls, while depredations were committed upon those of Rome; and this so pleased that simple people, that they declared for him in great numbers, and flocked to his standard with alacrity.

After sustaining three other defeats, at Trebia, Thrasimine, and Cannæ, the Romans seemed to be reduced to the verge of despair; but through the wisdom of Fabius and the courage of Marcellus, they gradually recruited their strength, till they were able to send Scipio into Africa, and by that measure obliged the Carthaginians to recal Hannibal. The battle of Zama, in which the Romans, assisted by the Numidians, totally defeated the Carthaginians, brought on a peace. The latter, by Hannibal's advice, submitted to the conditions which the Romans dictated, not as rivals but as sovereigns. By this treaty the Carthaginians were obliged to quit Spain and the islands in the Mediterranean. They were bound to pay 10,000 talents in 50 years; to give hostages for the delivery of their ships and their elephants; to restore to Massinissa all the territories that had been taken from him, and not to make war in Africa but by the permission of the Romans. Thus ended the second punic war, 17 years after it had began.

About 580 years before Christ, Massinissa, the Numidian, having made some incursions into a territory claimed by the Carthaginians, they attempted to repel the invasion. This brought on a war between that monarch and them; while the Romans, who pretended to consider this conduct of theirs as an infraction of the treaty, sent to make a complaint. The ambassadors, who were employed upon this occasion, finding the city very rich and flourishing, from the long interval of peace which it had now enjoyed for near 50 years, either from motives of avarice to possess its plunder, or for fear of its growing greatness, insisted much on the necessity of a war, which was soon after proclaimed, and the consuls set out with a thorough resolution utterly to demolish Carthage.

The wretched Carthaginians, finding that the conquerors would not desist from making demands while the vanquished had any thing to give, attempted to soften the victors by submission, but they received orders to leave the city, which was to be levelled with the ground. This severe command they received with all the distress of a despairing people; they implored for a respite from such a hard sentence; they used tears and lamentations; but finding the consuls inexorable, they departed, with a gloomy resolution, prepared to suffer the utmost extremities, and fight to the last for their seat of empire.

Those vessels, therefore, of gold and silver, which their luxury had taken such pride in, were converted into arms. The women parted also with their ornaments, and even cut off their hair, to be converted into strings for the bow-men. Asdrubal, who had been lately condemned for opposing the Romans, was now taken from prison to head their army, and such preparations were made, that when the consuls came before the city, which they expected to find an easy conquest, they met with such resistance as quite dispirited their forces, and shook their resolution. Several engagements were fought before the walls with disadvantage to the assailants; so that the siege would have been discontinued, had not Scipio Æmilianus, the adopted son of Africanus, who was now appointed to command it, used as much skill to save his forces after a defeat, as to inspire them with fresh hopes of victory. But all his arts would have failed, had he not found means to seduce Phameas, the master of the Carthaginian horse, who came over to his side. The unhappy townsmen soon saw the enemy make nearer approaches; the wall, which led to the haven, was quickly demolished; soon after the forum itself was taken, which offered the conquerors a deplorable spectacle of houses nodding to the fall, heaps of men lying dead, hundreds of the wounded struggling to emerge from the carnage around them, and

deploring their own and their country's ruin. The citadel soon after surrendered at discretion. All now but the temple was subdued, and that was defended by deserters from the Roman army, and those who had been most forward to undertake the war. These, however, expecting no mercy, and finding their condition desperate, set fire to the building, and voluntarily perished in the flames. This was the end of one of the most renowned cities in the world, for arts, opulence, and extent of dominions; it had rivalled Rome for above 100 years, and at one time was thought to have the superiority.

Numidia nearly corresponded to the modern Algiers, being separated from the territories of the Carthaginians by the Tusca, and from Mauritania by the Mulucha. It was divided into two districts; that nearest to Carthage inhabited by the Massyli, and that which joined on Mauritania by Masœsyli. Massinissa, king of the former, was a powerful ally of the Romans in the two last punic wars, and was rewarded by them with the country of the Masœsyli. The dissensions which prevailed among the grand-children of Massinissa gave the Romans an opportunity of interfering in the Numidian concerns; and at length, after the defeat of Pompey, this country was reduced to the form of a province. Its inhabitants were originally shepherds, like those of Nubia, and probably the descendants of Phut.

Mauritania extended from the frontiers of Nubia to mount Atlas. The history of its inhabitants is in a great measure unknown, but it appears that they also were shepherds, dwelling in tents, and employing themselves much in the hunting of wild beasts. Their country, like Numidia, became at length subject to the Roman yoke.

Barbary remained subject to the Romans till the year 428. At that time Bonifacius, the Roman governor of these provinces, having, through the treachery of Ætius, been forced to revolt, called in to his assistance Genseric, king of the Vandals, who had been some time settled in Spain. The terms offered, according to Procopius, were, that Genseric should have two-thirds and Bonifacius one-third of Africa, provided they could maintain themselves against the Roman power; and to accomplish this, they were to assist each other to the utmost. This proposal was instantly complied with; and Genseric set sail from Spain in May, 428, with an army of 80,000 men according to some, or only 24,000 according to others, together with their wives, children, and all their effects.

Bonifacius soon after returned to his duty; but the Vandals continued to gain ground, till, after 40 years warfare, they established their empire. As Genseric was an absolute barbarian, and an utter stranger to every useful art, he did not fail to show his own prowess, by the destruction of all the monuments of Roman greatness, which were so numerous in the country he had conquered. Accordingly, instead of improving his country, he laid it waste, by demolishing all the stately structures, both public and private, and all other valuable and sumptuous works, with which these proud conquerors had adorned this part of their dominions. So that whatever monuments the Romans had been at such an immense expence to erect, in order to eternize their own glory, the barbarous Vandals were now at no less pains to reduce into heaps of ruins. Besides this kind of devastation, Genseric made his dominions a scene of blood and slaughter, by persecuting the orthodox Christians; being himself, as well as most of his countrymen, a zealous Arian; and for this his long reign is chiefly remarkable.

An end was put to the Vandal monarchy in the year 533, by Belisarius, the general of

Justinian. It was afterwards conquered by the Saracens, in the time of Omar, and remained under the dominion of the khalifs till about the year 800, when its governor revolted and began a new dynasty. This gave place to another succession of usurpers, about a century after, who having conquered Egypt, and made that the seat of their government, abandoned Barbary to the ambition and avarice of their deputies. In consequence of which measure it was quickly drained of its wealth, and became the nest of a most odious crew of pirates. It is at present divided into Barca, Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, Fez, and Morocco.

Barca is for the most part a dry, sandy desert; and, except in the neighbourhood of towns and villages, where the ground produces some small quantities of grain, such as millet and some maize, the rest is in a manner quite barren and uncultivated, or, to speak more properly, uncultivable; and even of that small quantity which those few spots produce, the poor inhabitants are obliged to exchange some part with their indigent neighbours, for dates, sheep, and camels, which they stand in greater need of than they, by reason of their great scarcity of grass and other proper food, for want of which, those that are brought to them, seldom thrive or live long.

Concerning the government or commerce of this country, we know nothing certain. Most probably, the maritime towns are under the protection of the Porte; but whether under the bashaw of Egypt or Tripoli, or whether they have formed themselves into independent states, like those of Algiers and Tunis, we cannot say; only we are told that the inhabitants of the maritime towns are more civilized than those that dwell in the inland parts. The first profess Mahometanism, and have imbibed some notions of humanity and justice; whilst the latter, who have neither religion nor any sign of worship among them, are altogether savage and brutish. They are a sort of Arabs, and, like them, live entirely upon theft and plunder. By them this tract, which before was a continued desert, was first inhabited. At their first coming in, they settled themselves in one of the best places of the country, but as they multiplied, and had frequent wars with one another, the strongest drove the weakest out of the best spots, and sent them to wander in the desert parts, where they live in the most miserable manner, their country hardly affording one single necessary of life. Hence it is that they are said to be the ugliest of all the Arabs, their bodies having scarcely any thing but skin and bone, their faces meagre, with fierce, ravenous looks; their garb, which is what they commonly take from the passengers who go through these parts, tattered with long wearing; while the poorest of them have scarce a rag to cover their nakedness. They are most expert and resolute robbers, that being their chief employment and livelihood, but the travellers in those parts are so few, that the Barcans are often necessitated to make distant excursions into Numidia, Lybia, and other southern countries. Those that fall into their hands are made to drink plenty of warm milk, then they hang them up by their feet and shake them, in order to make them vomit up any money they think they have swallowed, after which they strip them of all their clothes, even to the last rag, but with all this inhumanity they commonly spare their life, which is more than the other African robbers do. Yet, notwithstanding every artifice they can use, the Barcans are so poor that they commonly let, pledge, or even sell their children, to the Sicilians and others, from whom they have their corn, especially before they set out on any long excursion.

Tripoli has the title of a kingdom, but is now a republic, governed by a dey. He is not absolute, for a Turkish bashaw resides here, who receives his authority from the grand seignior, and has a power of controling the dey and levying taxes on the people. The dey is elected by the soldiers, who make no scruple of deposing him when they please.

Tunis is under a similar form of government with that of Tripoli. The air in general is healthy, but the soil, on the eastern parts, is indifferent, for want of water. Towards the middle, the mountains and valleys abound in fruits; but the western part is the most fertile, because it is watered with rivers. The environs of Tunis are very dry, upon which account corn is generally dear. The inroads of the Arabs oblige the inhabitants to sow their barley and rye in the suburbs, and to inclose their gardens with walls. However there are plenty of citrons, lemons, oranges, dates, grapes, and other fruits; there are also olive-trees, roses, and odoriferous plants. In the woods and mountains there are lions, wild beeves, ostriches, monkeys, cameleons, roe-bucks, hares, pheasants, partridges, and other sorts of birds and beasts.

The climate of Algiers is, in most places, so moderate, that they enjoy a constant verdure; the leaves of the trees being neither parched by heat in summer, nor nipped by the winter's cold. They begin to bud in February; in April the fruit appears in its full bigness, and is ripe in May. The soil, however, is excessively various, some places being very hot, dry, and barren, on which account they are generally suffered to lie uncultivated by the inhabitants, who are very negligent. These barren places, especially such as lie on the southern side, and are at a great distance from the sea, harbour vast numbers of wild creatures, as lions, tygers, buffaloes, wild boars, stags, porcupines, monkeys, ostriches, &c. On account of their barrenness they have but few towns, and those thinly peopled; though some of them are so advantageously situated for trading with Bildulgerid and Negroland as to drive a considerable traffic with them.

Algiers is governed by a dey, who is now absolute monarch; and pays no other revenue to the Porte than that of a certain number of fine boys or youths, and some other presents, which are sent thither yearly. His own income probably rises and falls, according to the opportunities he hath of fleecing both natives and foreigners; whence it is variously computed by different authors. Dr. Shaw computes the taxes of the whole kingdom to bring into the treasury no more than 30,000 dollars; but supposes that the eighth part of the prizes, the effects of those persons who die without children, joined to the yearly contributions raised by the government, presents from foreigners, fines, and oppressions, may bring in about as much more. Both the dey and officers under him enrich themselves by the same laudable methods of rapine and fraud; which it is no wonder to find the common people practising upon one another, and especially upon strangers, seeing they themselves are impoverished by heavy taxes, and the injustice of those who are in authority.

The first deys were elected by the militia, who were then called the douwan or common-council. This elective body was at first composed of 800 militia officers, without whose consent the dey could do nothing; and upon some urgent occasions all the officers residing in Algiers, amounting to above 1500, were summoned to assist. But since the deys, who may be compared to the Dutch stadtholders, have become more powerful, the douwan is principally composed of 30 chiak-bashaws or colonels, with now and then the mufti and

cadi, upon some emergencies; and, on the election of a dey, the whole soldiery are allowed to come and give their votes. All the regulations of state ought to be determined by that assembly before they pass into a law, or the dey hath power to put them in execution, but for many years back the douwan is of so little account that it is only convened out of formality, and to give assent to what the dey and his chief favourites have concerted beforehand. The method of gathering the votes in this august assembly is perfectly agreeable to the character of those who compose it. The aga or general of the janizaries, or the president pro tempore, first proposes the question, which is immediately repeated, with a loud voice, by the chia-bashaws, and from them echoed again by four officers, called bashaldalas; from these the question is repeated from one member of the douwan to another, with strange contortions and the most hideous growlings if it is not to their liking. From the loudness of this growling noise, the aga is left to guess, as well as he can, whether the majority of the assembly are pleased or displeased with the question; and from such a preposterous method it is not surprising that these assemblies should seldom end without some tumult or disorder. As the whole body of the militia is concerned in the election of a new dey, it is seldom carried on without blows or blood-shed: but when once the choice is made, the person elected is saluted with the words Alla Barrick, "God bless you and prosper you;" and the new dey usually causes all the officers of the douwan, who had opposed his election, to be strangled, filling up their places with those who had been most zealous in promoting it. From this account of the election of the deys, it cannot be expected that their government should be at all secure; and as they arrive at the throne by tumult, disorder, and bloodshed they are generally deprived of it by the same means, scarcely one in ten of them having the good fortune to die a natural death.

The chief support of the Algerines is derived from their constant practice of piracy. The corsairs or pirates form each a small republic, of which the rais or captain is the supreme bashaw; who, with the officers under him, form a kind of douwan, in which every matter relating to the vessel is decided in an arbitrary way. These corsairs are chiefly instrumental in importing whatever commodities are brought into the kingdom either by way of merchandize or prizes. These consist chiefly of gold and silver stuffs, damasks, cloths, spices, tin, iron, plated-brass, lead, quicksilver, cordage, sail-cloth, bullets, cochineal, linen, tartar, alum, rice, sugar, soap, cotton, raw and spun, copperas, aloes, brazil and log-wood, vermilion, &c. Very few commodities, however, are exported from this part of the world; the oil, hides, wax, pulse, and corn, produced being but barely sufficient to supply the country; though, before the loss of Oran, the merchants have been known to ship off from one or the other parts of Barbary several thousand tuns of corn. The consumption of oil, though here in great abundance, is likewise so considerable in this kingdom, that it is seldom permitted to be shipped off for Europe. The other exports consist chiefly in ostriches' feathers, copper, ruggs, silk sashes, embroidered handkerchiefs, dates, and Christian slaves. Some manufactures in silk, cotton, wool, leather, &c. are carried on in this country, but mostly by the Spaniards settled here, especially about the metropolis. Carpets are also a manufacture of the country, which, though much inferior to those of Turkey, both in beauty and fineness, are preferred by the people to lie upon, on account of their being both cheaper and softer. There are also at Algiers looms for velvet, taffeties, and other wrought silks; and a coarse sort of linen is likewise made in most parts of

the kingdom. The country furnishes no materials for ship-building; they have neither ropes, tar, sails, anchors, nor even iron. When they can procure enough of new wood to form the main timbers of a ship, they supply the rest from the materials of prizes which they have made, and thus find the secret of producing new and swift-sailing vessels from the ruins of the old. Of all the states on the coast of Barbary, the Algerines are the strongest at sea.

Fez is a kingdom subject to the emperor of Morocco. Its capital, of the same name, is an antient and celebrated Mohammedan university.

Morocco is naturally fertile; but as its government is an absolute monarchy and severely oppressive, the inhabitants seldom cultivate more ground than is necessary for their support. Many of them live in tents, and their manners, as well as those of the inhabitants of the cities, are extremely simple. The traffic of the empire by land is either with Arabia or Negroland to Mecca; they send caravans, consisting of several thousand camels, horses, and mules, and partly on a religious account, for numbers of pilgrims take that opportunity of paying their devotions to their great prophet. The goods they carry to the east are woollen manufactures, leather, indigo, cochineal, and ostrich feathers; and they bring back from thence silk, muslins, and drugs. By their caravans to Negroland they send salt, silk, and woollen manufactures; and bring back gold and ivory in return, but chiefly negroes.

The natives have hardly any trading vessels, but are seldom without some corsairs: these and European merchant ships bring them whatever they want from abroad; as linen and woollen cloth, stuffs, iron wrought and unwrought, arms, gunpowder, lead, and the like; for which they take in return copper, wax, hides, Morocco leather, wool (which is very fine), gums, soap, dates, almonds, and other fruits. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco are but half those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious disposition, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected are seldom punished.

The land-forces of the emperor of Morocco consist principally of the black-troops, already mentioned, and some few white; amounting altogether to an army of about 36,000 men upon the establishment, two-thirds of which are cavalry. This establishment, however, upon occasion, admits of a considerable increase, as every man is supposed to be a soldier, and when called upon, is obliged to act in that capacity. About 6000 of the standing forces form the emperor's body guard, and are always kept near his person; the remainder are quartered in the different towns of the empire, and are under the charge of the bashaws of the provinces. They are all clothed by the emperor, and receive a trifling pay, but their chief dependence is on plunder, which they have frequent opportunities of acquiring. The soldiers have no distinction of dress from the other Moors; and are only marked by their accoutrements, which consist of a sabre, a very long musket, a small red leathern box, to hold their balls, which is fixed in front, by means of a belt, and a powder-horn slung over their shoulders. The army is under the direction of a commander in chief, four principal bashaws and alcaides, who command distinct divisions.

The emperor's navy consists of about 15 small frigates, a few zebecks, and between 20 and 30 row-galleys. The whole is commanded by one admiral, but as these vessels are principally used for purposes of piracy, they seldom unite in a fleet. The number of the seamen in service are computed at 7000.

CHAPTER II.

The Great Desert of Zaarah——*Including the Mahometan kingdoms on the Senegal and Niger, with an account of the coast of Zanquebar.*

ZAARAH, or, as it is otherwise written, Sahara, is a vast ocean of sand, in the interior parts of Africa, which, with the lesser deserts of Bournou, Bilma, Barca, Sort, &c. is equal in extent to about one half of Europe. If the sand be considered as the ocean, the Sahara has its gulphs and bays, as also its islands or oases, fertile in groves and pastures, and in many instances containing a great population, subject to order and regular government.

The great body or western division of this ocean, comprised between Fezzan and the Atlantic, is no less than 50 caravan journeys across from north to south, and from 650 to 800 geographical miles, and double that extent in length; without doubt the largest desert in the world. This division contains but a scanty portion of islands or oases, and those also of small extent; but the eastern division has many, and some of them very large. Fezzan, Gadamis, Taboo, Ghanat, Agadez, Angela, Berdoa are amongst the principal ones; besides which there are a large number of small ones. In effect, this is the part of Africa alluded to by Strabo, when he says, from Cneius Piso, that Africa may be compared to a leopard's skin.

From the best inquiries that Mr. Park could make, when a kind of captive among the Moors at Ludamar, the Western desert, he says, may be pronounced almost destitute of inhabitants, except where the scanty vegetation, which appears in certain spots, affords pasturage for the flocks of a few miserable Arabs, who wander from one well to another. In other places, where the supply of water and pasturage is more abundant, small parties of the Moors have taken up their residence. Here they live in independent poverty, secure from the tyrannical government of Barbary. But the greater part of the desert being totally destitute of water, is seldom visited by any human being; unless where the trading caravans trace out their toilsome and dangerous route across it. In some parts of this extensive waste the ground is covered with low stunted shrubs, which serve as land-marks for the caravans, and furnish the camels with a scanty forage. In other parts, the disconsolate wanderer, wherever he turns, sees nothing around him but a vast interminable expanse of sand and sky; a gloomy and barren void, where the eye finds no particular object to rest upon, and the mind is filled with painful apprehensions of perishing with thirst. Surrounded by this dreary solitude, the traveller sees the dead bodies of birds, that the violence of the wind has brought from happier regions; and as he ruminates on the fearful length of his remaining passage, listens, with horror, to the voice of the driving blast, the only sound that interrupts the awful repose of the desert.

The few wild animals which inhabit these melancholy regions are the antelope and the ostrich; their swiftness of foot enabling them to reach the distant watering-places. On the skirts of the desert, where the water is more plentiful, are found lions, panthers, elephants, and wild boars.

This desert is inhabited by several wandering tribes of Arabs, and by a mingled people, who are denominated Moors. Of the latter Mr. Park has given us a very unfavourable character. He describes them as resembling in complexion the Mulattoes of the West Indies, and as having cruelty and low cunning pictured in their countenances. "From the staring wildness of their eyes (says he) a stranger would immediately set them down as a nation of lunatics: the treachery and malevolence of their character are manifested in their plundering excursions against the negro villages. Often times, without the smallest provocation, and sometimes under the fairest professions of friendship, they will suddenly seize upon the negroes' cattle, and even on the inhabitants themselves; the negroes very seldom retaliate; the enterprising boldness of the Moors, their knowledge of the country, and above all, the superior fleetness of their horses, make them such formidable enemies, that the petty negro states, which border upon the desert, are in continual alarm while the Moorish tribes are in the vicinity, and are too much awed to think of resistance."

"Like the roving Arabs, the Moors frequently remove from one place to another, according to the season of the year or the convenience of pasturage. In the month of February, when the heat of the sun scorches up every sort of vegetation in the desert, they strike their tents, and approach the negro country to the south; where they reside until the rains commence, in the month of July. At this time, having purchased corn and other necessaries from the negroes, in exchange for salt, they again depart to the northward, and continue in the desert until the rains are over, and that part of the country becomes burnt up and barren."

"This wandering and restless way of life, while it inures them to hardships, strengthens at the same time the bonds of their little society, and creates in them an aversion towards strangers, which is almost insurmountable. Cut off from all intercourse with civilized nations, and boasting an advantage over the negroes, in possessing, though in a very limited degree, the knowledge of letters, they are at once the vainest, and proudest, and perhaps the most bigotted, ferocious, and intolerant of all the nations on the earth; combining in their character the blind superstition of the negro with the savage cruelty and treachery of the Arab." But for them Mr. Park would have accomplished the utmost object of his mission, and have reached Tombuctoo and even Houssa, with no other danger than what arises necessarily from the climate, from wild beasts, and from the poor accommodation afforded in the huts of the hospitable negroes. The wandering Moors, however, have all been taught to regard the Christian name with inconceivable abhorrence; and to consider it nearly as lawful to murder an European as it would be to kill a dog.

In describing the different Mohammedan nations, fixed or wandering, we shall begin with the Mongearts, who inhabit the shores of the Atlantic, and thus, passing through the centre of Africa, terminate the chapter with describing the coast of Zanguebar.

The Mongearts are one of the wandering tribes of Arabs, and wholly occupied in tending their cattle. They are all Mahometans, and offer up prayers three times a day, sometimes oftener; but having no mosques, these prayers are never pronounced in public, except when the horde is visited by a priest, who seldom comes but upon account of the children's education. Then all the Arabs assemble at the hour of prayer, place themselves in a line, turn to the east, and, wanting water in the desert, rub their face and arms with sand, while the priest recites aloud the general prayer. It is the same as that which is rehearsed by the public crier in the mosques in civilized countries.

The priests are employed in travelling about the country to instruct the children: there is nothing like force in their education: the little boys meet in the morning, of their own accord, at the place of instruction, which is to them a place of recreation; they go there with a small board, inscribed with the Arabic characters, and a few maxims of the Koran; the oldest and the best informed receive their lessons directly from the priests, and afterwards communicate them to their fellows. They are never corrected; because it would be a crime to beat a child, who, according to the received notions, has not sufficient reason to distinguish good from evil: this lenity extends even to the children of Christians, though in a state of slavery; they are treated in all respects like the Arabs, and the man who shall be rash enough to strike one of them would endanger his life. Very different is their treatment of negro children, who may indeed join all the amusements of the young Arabs, and even attend the public schools; but if they be guilty of a fault, they are severely punished.

When the child of a Mongeart becomes tired of the places of public instruction, he quits them at pleasure; and without feeling constraint or hearing reproach, goes and employs himself in tending his father's flocks; and accordingly there are very few among them who can read. Those who persevere in the study of the Koran are made priests, after having passed an examination before the learned elders, and enjoy the greatest public consideration. They have no need of cattle, for those of the nation being theirs, they find their subsistence every where.

It is generally at seven or eight years of age that children undergo the painful operation of circumcision. Their head is also shaved, nothing being left but four locks of hair; one of which is cut off, in a meeting of the family at each remarkable action performed by the child. If at the age of 12 or 13 he kill a wild boar or other beast of prey that should fall upon his flock, he loses one of his locks. If in the passage of a river a camel be carried away by the stream, and he save it by swimming to its assistance, another is cut off. If he kill a lion, a tyger, or a warrior of a hostile nation, in a surprise or an attack, he is considered as a man, and his head is entirely shaved.

Different from the other Arabs, their neighbours, and indeed from the Mahometans in general, the Mongearts trouble no man on account of his religion. The only one which they do not tolerate is the Jewish; and were a Jew to enter their territory, and have the misfortune to be taken, he would certainly be burnt alive.

A war between two Mongeart tribes seldom happens, and is never bloody; but the different families destroy one another fast enough in their intestine broils. They are all thieves; and indeed theft is a crime only in the day-time, being authorised by law during the night, in order to compel them to take care of their cattle. Could they find redress when robbed by night, they would be less vigilant; and their herds and flocks would be more exposed to the wild beasts that over-run their country; but being obliged to be on their guard, even against their nearest neighbours, they are always ready to repel both the lion and the tyger. Theft, even in the day-time, is so far from being punished, unless detected at the instant of commission, that when any thing is stolen unperceived, it becomes the lawful property of the thief. In vain would the rightful owner recognize it in his neighbour's tent, he cannot reclaim it, it ceases to be his from the moment he has been negligent in its care. Hence arises this people's inclination for rapine; they do

not think they commit a crime, and only follow, in this regard, a custom allowed by their laws.

When an Arab is going to market, or on his return from thence, if he do not take the greatest care to keep his journey a secret, he is often attacked. Neighbouring Arabs are desirous of profiting by his industry, and as there are no persons in the country appointed to apprehend robbers, the hope of booty spurs them on to the attack. That they may have nothing to fear, they lie in wait, when the night is coming on, for him whom they mean to pillage. Their intention is never to kill, they only endeavour to surprise, to disarm, and make themselves master of every thing that comes in their way. But it sometimes happens that the man they intend to plunder, being acquainted with the customs of his country, keeps an attentive ear, stands on his guard, fires upon his assailants at the first motion he observes, and then fights desperately with his dagger. The report of the musket almost always brings out the neighbouring Arabs, who, in virtue of the laws of hospitality, take the defence of the weaker side: they run up well armed; and then woe to the aggressors, if they do not save themselves by a speedy flight.

The Mongearts have a rooted abhorrence of the Spaniards, and never fail to massacre every man of that nation, who is so unfortunate as to be shipwrecked on their coasts, while they reserve the women for sale at Morocco. The reason of this hatred is that the inhabitants of the Canaries make frequent descents on the Mongear coasts, and carry off men, women, cattle, and every thing they meet with, and these people being ignorant of the fate of their countrymen, retaliate by death on all Spaniards that fall into their hands; whilst they treat the British and French as well as they can.

The Foulahs inhabit a country on the confines of the great desert, along the parallel of nine degrees north. They partake much of the negro form and complexion; but have neither the jetty colour, thick lips, nor crisped hair of the negroes: they have also a language distinct from the Mandinga, which is the prevailing one in this quarter. The Foulahs occupy, at least as sovereigns, several provinces or kingdoms, interspersed throughout the tract comprehended between the mountainous border of the country of Sierra Leona on the west, and that of Tombuctoo on the east, as also a large tract on the lower part of the Senegal river; and these provinces are insulated from each other in a very remarkable manner. Their religion is Mahomedanism, but with a great mixture of paganism, and with less intolerance than is practised by the Moors.

Ludamar is a Moorish kingdom, in the interior of Africa, of which the capital, Benorm, is placed by major Rennel in 15° north latitude, and 60° 50′ west longitude. It has for its northern boundary the great desert, and is described by Mr. Park as little better than a desert itself. Our traveller was taken captive on the confines of this kingdom, and carried to the camp of the king, where he was subjected to the cruelest indignities that the malice of bigotted Moors could invent. He was not suffered to travel beyond the camp, though he moved as it moved, and of course saw a considerable part of the country, and had an opportunity of observing the manners of the people. "The Moors of Ludamar subsist chiefly on the flesh of their cattle, and are always in the extreme of gluttony or abstinence. In consequence of the frequent and severe fasts which their religion enjoins, and the toilsome journeys which they sometimes undertake across the desert, they are enabled to bear both hunger and thirst with surprising fortitude; but whenever opportunities

occur of satisfying their appetites, they generally devour more at one meal than would serve an European for three. They pay but little attention to agriculture, purchasing their corn, cotton, cloth, and other necessaries from the negroes, in exchange for salt, which they dig from the pits in the Great Desert."

"The natural barrenness of the country is such that it furnishes but few materials for manufacture. The Moors, however, contrive to weave a strong cloth, with which they cover their tents: the thread is spun by their women, from the hair of goats; and they prepare the hides of their cattle so as to furnish saddles, bridles, pouches, and other articles of leather. They are likewise sufficiently skilful to convert the native iron, which they procure from the negroes, into spears and knives, and also into pots for boiling their food; but their sabres and other weapons, as well as their fire-arms and ammunition, they purchase from the Europeans, in exchange for the negro slaves which they obtain in their predatory excursions. Their chief commerce of this kind is with the French traders in the Senegal river."

"The Moors of this country have singular ideas of feminine perfection: the gracefulness of figure and motion and a countenance enlivened by expression are by no means essential points in their standard; with them corpulence and beauty appear to be terms nearly synonymous. A woman of even moderate pretensions must be one who cannot walk without a slave under each arm to support her; and a perfect beauty is a load for a camel. In consequence of this prevalent taste for unwieldiness of bulk, the Moorish ladies take great pains to acquire it early in life; and for this purpose many of the young girls are compelled by their mothers to devour an immense quantity of food, and drink a large bowl of camel's milk every morning. It is of no importance whether the girl has an appetite or no, the meat and the drink must be swallowed; and obedience is frequently enforced by blows. This singular practice, instead of producing indigestion and disease, soon covers the young lady with that degree of plumpness, which, in the eye of a Moor, is perfection itself."

"Although the wealth of the Moors consists chiefly in their numerous herds of cattle, yet, as the pastoral life does not afford full employment, the majority of the people are perfectly idle, and spend the day in trifling conversation about their horses, or in laying schemes of depredation on the negro villages."

"The usual place of rendezvous for the indolent is the king's tent, where great liberty of speech seems to be exercised by the company towards each other. While in speaking of their chief they express but one opinion. In praise of their sovereign they are unanimous. Songs are composed in his honour, which the company frequently sing in concert, but they are so loaded with gross adulation, that no man but a Moorish despot could hear them without blushing. The king is distinguished by the fineness of his dress, which is composed of blue cotton cloth, brought from Tombuctoo, or white linen, or muslin from Morocco. He has likewise a larger tent than any other person, with a white cloth over it; but in his usual intercourse with his subjects all distinctions of rank are frequently forgotten. He sometimes eats out of the same bowl with his camel driver, and reposes himself during the heat of the day upon the same bed."

"The military strength of Ludamar consists in cavalry. They are well mounted, and appear to be very expert in skirmishing and attacking by surprise. Every soldier

furnishes his own horse, and finds his accoutrements, consisting of a large sabre, a double barrelled gun, a small red leather bag for holding his balls, and a powder-horn slung over the shoulder. He has no pay, nor any remuneration but what arises from plunder. This body is not very numerous, for when Ali, the king, made war upon Bambara, our author was informed that his whole force did not exceed 2000 cavalry: they constitute, however, by what he could learn, but a very small proportion of his Moorish subjects. The horses are very beautiful, and so highly esteemed that the negro princes will sometimes give from 12 to 14 slaves for one horse."

Tombuctoo is a large city, capital of a kingdom of the same name, has been for some time the great object of European research, and was, we have heard, very lately visited by Mr. Mungo Park. It is one of the principal marts for that extensive commerce which the Moors carry on with the negroes. The hopes of acquiring wealth in this pursuit, and zeal for propagating their religion have filled this extensive city with Moors and Mahomedan converts; the king himself and all the chief officers of state are Moors, and they are said to be more severe and intolerant in their principles than any other of the Moorish tribes in this part of Africa.

Another celebrated city in the interior of Africa is Houssa, the capital of an African empire on the banks of the Niger, a city which has excited much curiosity among men of science since it was first mentioned to a committee of the African Association, about the year 1790. The person from whom they received their information was an Arab, of the name of Shabeni; who said that the population of Houssa, where he had resided two years, was equalled only (so far as his knowledge extended) by that of London and Cairo; and, in his rude unlettered way, he described the government as monarchial, yet not unlimited; its justice as severe, but directed by written laws; and the rights of landed property as guarded by the institutions of certain hereditary officers, whose functions appear to be similar to those of the Canongoes of Hindostan, and whose important complicated duties imply an unusual degree of civilization and refinement. For the probity of the merchants of Houssa the Arab expressed the highest respect; but remarked, with indignation, that the women were admitted to society, and that the honour of the husband was often insecure. Of their written alphabet he knew no more than that it is perfectly different from the Arabic and the Hebrew characters; but he represented the art of writing as common in Houssa. And when he described the manner in which their pottery was made, he gave, unknowingly to himself, a representation of the antient Grecian wheel. In passing to Houssa from Tombuctoo, in which last city he had resided seven years, he found the banks of the Niger more numerously peopled than those of the Nile from Alexandria to Cairo, and his mind was obviously impressed with higher ideas of the wealth and grandeur of the empire of Houssa than of those of any kingdom which he had seen, England alone excepted.

Fezzan is a kingdom in the interior of Africa, placed in the vast wilderness as an island in the ocean. The following account was given to Mr. Lucas, the African traveller, by an old sheneef, a native of Fezzan, and that account was confirmed by the governor of Mesurata, who had himself visited Fezzan, and who, having treated the traveller with great kindness, ought not to be suspected of having wantonly deceived him.

According to this account Fezzan lies to the south of Mesurata, and the traveller from

the latter place to the former arrives in eight days at Wadan, where refreshments are procured for the caravan. From thence, in five hours, they reach the desert of Soudah, where no vegetable is seen to grow but the talk, a tree from which the lemon-coloured wood is taken, which forms handles for tools. The passage of the desert takes up some days, when the traveller finds a miserable village, producing nothing but dates, brackish water, and Indian corn; from this village, a day's journey conducts to the town of Sebhah, where are the remains of an antient castle and other venerable ruins, and in four days more he reaches Mourzouk, the capital of Fezzan.

This city is situated on the banks of a small river, surrounded by a high wall for defence, and is distant from Mesurata 390 computed miles. Eastward of Mourzouk, in the town of Queela, in which are the remains of antient buildings; the size of the cisterns and the construction of the vaulted caves exhibit instances of antient splendor. South of which place is Jermah, distinguished by numerous and majestic ruins, on which are many inscriptions. Tessouwa lies eastward, near which was a river, which the shereef remembers, but is now overwhelmed in the moving sands. North-east from Mourzouk, distant about 120 miles, is the large town of the Temmiswa, where the caravans of pilgrims from Bornou and Nigritia, by way of Cairo, to Mecca, provide their stores for the desert.

In the town or province of Mendrah is a large quantity of trona, a species of fossil alkali, that floats on the surface or settles on the banks of its spreading lakes, great quantity of which is sent to Tripoli, and shipped for Turkey, Tunis, and Morocco; at the latter it is used as an ingredient in the red dye of the leather. Mendrah is about 60 miles south of Fezzan. The territory of Fezzan extends but little westward, being confined by barren mountains: the smaller towns of this kingdom are said to be about 100; these towns are chiefly inhabited by husbandmen and shepherds; in every town a market is regularly held; mutton and goats' flesh are sold by the quarter, usually from 32 to 40 grains of gold, or from four to five shillings English; the flesh of camels is dearer and divided into smaller parts.

The houses are of clay, with flat roofs, composed of branches of trees, on which earth is laid; this is sufficient in a climate where it never rains. The heats in summer, from April to November, are intense, and the hot winds blow from the south-east, south, and south-west with such violence as to threaten suffocation; when it changes to the west, a reviving freshness ensues.

The dress of the inhabitants is like that of the Moors of Barbary, consisting of a large pair of trowsers, a shirt, which hangs over the trowsers, a kind of waistcoat without sleeves, and a jacket with tight sleeves; over the jacket is a loose robe, which reaches below the knee, a girdle of crimson, and a long cloth, called a barrakon or alhaicque, like a highland plaid, is worn, stockings of leather, laced like half boots, and slippers; on the head a red cap and turban; sometimes over the whole they throw a long cloak with a hood, called a burnoose. In summer they throw off all but the shirt and the cap.

The people bear very high degrees of heat, but any cold affects them sensibly. Their diseases are chiefly of the inflammatory and putrid kind; the small-pox is common; their old women are their principal physicians. For pains in the head they cup and bleed, for those in the limbs they bathe in the hot lakes. They have a multitude of noxious and

loathsome animals; the air is crowded with mosquetoes, and their persons are over-run with the vermin which affect the beggars of Europe.

In their persons they incline to the negro, of a deep swarthy complexion, with curly black hair; they are tall, but indolent, inactive, and weak. In their common intercourse, distinction of rank seems to be forgotten; rich and poor, master and man, converse, eat, and drink together; they are, however, generous and hospitable.

An extensive plain composes the kingdom of Fezzan: the soil is generally a light sand, the springs are abundant, and few regions in Africa exhibit a richer vegetation. The land produces the talk, the white-thorn, date-trees, the olive, and lime, apricot, pomegranate, and fig; Indian corn and barley are the favourite objects of cultivation, of wheat there is little raised. The tame animals are the sheep, cow, goat, and camel; and the wild are the ostrich, antelopes of various kinds, one of which is called the huadec, which, when chased, plunges with address from a precipice, and lights on its hams.

The food of the lower class consists of flour of Indian corn, seasoned with oil and fruit; those of superior rank eat wheat-bread and flesh. Fezzan produces much salt; the water has in general a mineral taste, but the favourite beverage is a liquor from the date-tree, which acquires, when fermented, an intoxicating strength. In religion they are rigid Mahomedans, but tolerant. Their government is monarchial; their present king is descended from one of the shereefs of Taffilet, who, about 400 years since, obtained the crown. Till the present century the king was independent, when the bashaw of Tripoli conquered and made it tributary; the reigning sovereign has nearly thrown off this yoke. In Fezzan the descendants of the prophet are highly privileged, their property and persons are inviolable, they are exempt from certain punishments. This class are in general either princes or merchants.

The revenue is composed of a tax on towns and villages, a tax on every camel-load of goods (except provisions) which enters the capital, fines for offences, lands of persons dying without heirs, and a tax on gardens and date-trees. Gold dust by weight is the chief medium of payment, but for convenience they are furnished with small papers of gold dust, of different values, from two xarbes or one and a half upwards, for smaller articles corn or flour are used as a medium. One grain of gold is equal to three halfpence sterling: the Fezzan grain is the same as in England.

The justice of the sovereign is highly extolled; small offences are punished by the bastinado, and the punishments increase to fine, imprisonment, and death. Trusting to their natural defence, the towns are without guards, and they have no standing forces: the only war the shereef remembered, was undertaken against a people inhabiting the mountains of Tibesti, which is separated from the people of Fezzan by a wide and sandy desert. These people are wild and savage, and had plundered a caravan belonging to the king, who sent an army of between 3 and 4000 men against them and subdued them: the country of this people produces much senna. The vales of Tibesti are said to be fertile in corn and pasture for cattle, particularly camels: the people live in huts and profess various religions; some the Mahomedan, others are attached to their antient idolatry.

The people of Fezzan carry on a considerable trade with Tripoli, Bornou, Nigritia, &c. At the end of October, when the heats are abated, the caravans depart from Mourzouk in

small parties of 10 or 12, unless in the time of war: they lay in provisions of dates, meal, and mutton, salted, dried in the sun, and boiled in oil or fat. The merchants have agents in the chief towns, to whom they send the slaves they purchase. The caravans to Tripoli carry the trona, senna, gold, and slaves, brought from the southern countries; and in return bring back cutlery, woollen, silks, dollars, copper, and brass.

That to Bournou carries brass and copper for the currency of the country, imperial dollars, and various manufactures; but of their own produce only a preparation of dates and meal of Indian corn; and they take in return slaves, gold dust, and civet.

To Cashna, an empire in Nigritia, they carry cowries, brass, to make rings and bracelets, horses, several kinds of manufactures, and the Gooroo nuts, and in return take gold dust, slaves, cotton cloth dyed, goats' skins, hides, senna, and civet, for the countries south of the Niger, where also they convey sabre-blades, and Dutch knives, coral, brass beads, looking-glasses, dollars, &c.; and receive back gold dust, slaves, cotton cloths, goats-skins, Gooroo nuts, cowries, and ivory.

A caravan of pilgrims sets out likewise, in every autumn of the second or third year, from Mourzouk, the capital of Fezzan, to Mecca. They proceed to Temessa, over the mountain of Ziltan, and thence to Sibbul, a place subject to Tripoli; and thence, nearly in a line with the Mediterranean sea, to Cairo, and thence to Mecca by the customary route.

As not one celestial observation has been taken to determine any latitude between Benia and Tripoli, all the positions are fixed by estimation, reckoning 15 or 16 miles for a day's journey. Mr. Rennel places Mourzouk, the capital of Fezzan, in latitude 27° 20', or 260 miles from Masurata.

Bournou is a kingdom or province of Zaara in Africa, extending from 12° to 22° of east longitude; and from 17° to 21° of north latitude. The northern part is poor and like the rest of the provinces of Zaara; but all the rest is well watered by springs and rivers, that tumble down, with a dreadful noise, from the mountains, rendering the country prolific in corn, grass, and fruits, and giving it a pleasing aspect. The eastern and western frontiers are divided into mountains and valleys, the latter being all covered with flocks of cattle, fields of rice and millet, and many of the mountains with wood, fruit-trees, and cotton. On the north-west stands the mountain of Tartar, having plenty of good iron mines; and on the south flows the river Niger, which, it is said, after running a great many leagues under a long chain of mountains, rears up its head again, and mingles its streams with the waters of the lake Bournou, in its course from whence it washes the walls of the capital of this kingdom. The compilers of the Universal History, however, are of opinion that in these mountains the river Niger hath its course, because no river hath been traced to the eastward except the Nile, which runs in a different course from north to south; and the White river, on the western frontiers of Abyssinia, which is a branch of the Nile. The eastern and western parts of Bournou are inhabited by a people of a roving disposition, who live in tents, and have their women, children, and every thing else in common; the word property or any idea equivalent to it being utterly unknown among them. They have neither religion, laws, government, nor any degree of subordination; and hence they have been supposed by Chiverius to be the lineal descendants of the antient Garamantes, and this to have been the residence of that people. In these parts the natives are almost all to a man shepherds and husbandmen. In summer they go naked, except a short apron

before; but in winter they are warmly clothed with the softest sheep-skins, of which they also form their bed clothes; and indeed this is scarce a sufficient defence against the inclemency of the weather at certain seasons of the year, when a cold piercing wind blows from the northern mountains, that chills the blood in proportion as the pores of the body have been opened by the scorching heats of summer. Baudrand and Daper affirm that the natives are scarce superior in their understanding to brutes; not having any names whereby to distinguish each other, except what they take from any personal defect or singularity; such as lean, fat, squinting, hump-backed, &c. In the towns, however, it is acknowledged that they are something more civilized and polite, being many of them merchants; but of these towns, nor indeed of the kingdom in general, very little is known.

Adel is a kingdom on the eastern coast of Africa, which reaches as far as the straits of Babelmandel, which unite the Red sea to the sea of Arabia. This country produces corn, and feeds a great number of cattle. The inhabitants carry on a trade in gold, silver, ivory, oil, frankincense, a sort of pepper, and other merchandizes of Arabia and the Indies. The king was formerly a vassal to the grand negus of Abyssinia; but being Mahometans, and the Abyssinians a sort of Christians, they could not agree; and in 1535 came to an open rupture, when the Adelines threw off the yoke, seeking protection from the grand signior. The principal places are Adela, seated in the centre of the country, and is the town where the king resides; Zeila, near the Arabian sea, is a rich town, and has a good trade; Barbora, near the sea-coast, is an antient trading town. It rains very seldom in this country.

Ajan, a coast and country of Africa, has the river Quilmanci on the south; the mountains from which that river springs on the west; Abyssinia or Ethiopia and the strait of Babelmandel on the north; and the Eastern or Indian ocean on the east. The coast abounds with all the necessaries of life, and has plenty of very good horses. The kings of Ajan are often at war with the emperor of the Abyssins, and all the prisoners they take they sell to the merchants of Cambaya, those of Aden, and other Arabs, who come to trade in their harbours, and give them in exchange coloured cloths, glass beads, raisins, and dates, for which they also take back, besides slaves, gold and ivory. The whole sea-coast from Zanquebar to the strait of Babelmandel is called the coast of Ajan, and a considerable part of it is styled the Desert-coast.

Zanquebar is a country in Africa, lying on the eastern coast, between 3° of north latitude and 18° south. It includes several petty kingdoms, in which the Portuguese have various settlements. The inhabitants, except those converted by the Portuguese, are all Mahometans and idolaters: and the latter much the more numerous. The names of the principal territories are Mombaza, Lamon, Melinda, Quiola, and Mosambique: the Portuguese have built several ports in Mombaza and Mosambique, and have settled several colonies there; they trade with the negroes for slaves, ivory, gold, ostrich-feathers, wax, and drugs: the productions are much the same as in other parts of Africa between the tropics.

Mombaza supplies the Portuguese with slaves, gold, ivory, rice, flesh, and other provisions, which they transport to their settlement in Brazil.

Melinda is for the most part rich and fertile, producing almost all the necessaries of

life, except wheat and rice, both which are brought thither from Cambaya and other parts, and those who cannot purchase them make use of potatoes in their stead, which are here fine, large, and in great plenty: they likewise abound with great variety of fruit-trees, roots, plants, and other esculents, and with melons of exquisite taste: they have also great plenty of venison, game, oxen, sheep, hens, geese, and other poultry, &c.; and one breed of sheep, whose tails weigh between 30 and 40 pounds. The capital city is also called Melinda.

Mosambique takes its name from the chief town, which is situated on an island at the mouth of a river of the same name, in 15° south latitude: the island is 30 miles in circumference and very populous; though the air is said to be very hot, and the soil in general dry, sandy and barren, yet they have most of the tropical fruits, with black cattle, hogs, and sheep. There is a kind of fowl here both the feathers and flesh of which are black; insomuch that when they are boiled, the broth looks like ink; and yet their flesh is very delicate and good food. The town of Mosambique is regularly fortified, and has a good harbour, defended by a citadel, with several churches and monasteries: the Portuguese shipping to and from India touch here for refreshments. As the island abounds in cattle, the Portuguese slaughter and salt up a great deal of beef, which they afterwards send to the Brazils or sell to the European shipping: they also barter European goods with the natives, for gold, elephants' teeth, and slaves. There is another town, called Mongale, situated also on an island, and garrisoned by the Portuguese, being their chief magazine for European goods. The gold they receive from the natives is found near the surface of the earth, or in the sands of rivers; no gold mines, or at least very few, being at present wrought in Africa.

VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK XI.

PAGAN AFRICA.

CHAPTER I.

GUINEA.

THIS large tract of country lies on the west side of the continent of Africa, and extends along the coasts 3 or 4000 miles, beginning at the river Senegal. From that river to the river Gambia, and in a southerly course to Cape Sierra Leona, is comprehended a coast of 700 miles, being the same tract for which queen Elizabeth granted charters to the first traders to that coast. From Sierra Leona the land of Guinea takes a turn to the eastward, extending that course about 1500 miles, including those several divisions known by the names of the Grain Coast, the Ivory Coast, the Gold Coast, and the Slave Coast, with the large kingdom of Benin. From thence the land runs southward along the coast about 1200 miles, which contains the kingdoms of Congo and Angola, where the trade for slaves ends. From which to the southermost cape of Africa, called the Cape of Good Hope, the country is settled by Caffres and Hottentots, who have never been concerned in making or selling slaves.

The entrance into the Senegal river is narrow and somewhat difficult, by reason of its immoveable bar and sandy shoals, as well as the several islands at the mouth of it, and the several canals and marches that clog it, but after sailing up eight or ten leagues, it is found broad and deep, and fit to carry large vessels, and, excepting about five or six leagues on each side above the mouth, which is sandy and barren ground, the banks are covered with stately trees and villages, and the country in general is fertile and well watered; for, like the Nile, this river overflows its banks for many leagues, and enriches the land to a great degree, though, for want of skill, the inhabitants do not reap the advantages which they might obtain from its fertility. The people on both sides the river live as near to it as they can, and feed great herds of cattle, sowing large and small millet, the former of which is called by us Turkey wheat, in great quantities and with great increase. If the river fails of overflowing at its usual season, a great scarcity ensues in the adjacent country; and even when it overflows regularly, it breeds such vast flights of grasshoppers and insects as quite darken the air, and frequently devour all the product of the earth, in which case the people kill these insects and eat them, which they do either

by pounding in leathern bags, and then boiling them in milk, or, which is reckoned the more delicious method, by frying or broiling them over a light blaze, in a frying-pan full of holes; thus the legs and wings of the insects are burnt off, and the rest of the body is sufficiently roasted to be eaten as a dainty, which they look upon to be very wholesome and nourishing.

The soil on the Gambia is said by Mr. Adanson "to be rich and deep, and amazingly fertile, producing spontaneously and almost without cultivation all the necessaries of life, grain, fruits, herbs, and roots. Every thing matures to perfection and is excellent in its kind." One thing which always surprised him was the prodigious rapidity with which the sap of trees repairs any loss they may happen to sustain in that country; "And I was never (says he) more astonished than when, landing four days after, the insects had devoured all the fruits and leaves, and even the buds of the trees, to find the trees covered with new leaves, and they did not seem to me to have suffered much." "It was then (says the same author) the fish season; you might see them in shoals approaching towards land. Some of those shoals were 50 fathoms square, and the fish crouded together in such a manner as to roll upon one another without being able to swim. As soon as the negroes perceive them coming towards land, they jump into the water, with a basket in one hand and swim with the other: they need only to plunge and to lift up their basket, and they are sure to return loaded with fish."

The country between the Gambia and Senegal, as well as on the banks of those rivers, is principally inhabited by three races of negroes; the Foulahs, who have been already described; the Mandingos; and the Jaloffs. The Mandingos are so called from the large country of Manding, which is situated in the interior of Africa: they are a very gentle race of people, cheerful in their dispositions, credulous, simple, and fond of flattery. The men are commonly above the middle size, well shaped, strong, and capable of enduring great labour; the women are good-natured, sprightly, and agreeable: the dress of both sexes is composed of cotton cloth, of their own manufacture; that of the men is a loose frock, not unlike a surplice, with drawers, which reach half way down the leg, and they wear sandals on their feet, and white cotton caps on their heads; the women's dress consists of two pieces of cloth, each of which is about six feet long and three broad, one of these they wrap round the waist, which, hanging down to the ancles, answers the purpose of a petticoat, the other is thrown negligently over the bosom and shoulders. Both men and women among the Mandingos seem to have an invincible propensity to commit depredations on the property of unprotected strangers; whilst such is the good-nature of these poor heathens that they will readily sympathize in the sufferings, relieve the distresses, and contribute to the personal safety of the very strangers whom they are bent upon plundering.

Among the Mandingos the parental and filial affection is remarkably strong between the mother and the child, but not so between the father and his children. This, as Mr. Park observes, is easily accounted for: the system of polygamy, while it weakens the father's attachment, by dividing it among the children of different wives, concentrates all the mother's jealous tenderness to one point, the protection of her own offspring. He perceived with great satisfaction too that the maternal solicitude extended not only to the growth and security of the person, but also in a certain degree to the improvement of the

mind of the infant; for one of the first lessons in which the Mandingo women instruct their children is the practice of truth.

Mr. Park says he has conversed with all ranks and conditions of negroes on the subject of their faith, and that he can pronounce, without the smallest shadow of doubt, that the belief of one God and of a future state of reward and punishment, is entire and universal among them. It is remarkable, however, that except on the appearance of a new moon, the pagan natives do not think it necessary to offer up prayers and supplications to the Almighty. They represent the Deity indeed as the creator and preserver of all things; but in general they consider him as a Being so remote and of so exalted a nature that it is idle to imagine the feeble supplications of wretched mortals can reverse the decrees and change the purposes of unerring wisdom. The concerns of this world they believe are committed by the Almighty to the superintendence and direction of subordinate spirits, over whom they suppose that certain magical ceremonies have great influence. A white fowl suspended to the branch of a particular tree, a snake's head, or a few handfuls of fruit, are offerings which ignorance and superstition frequently present to deprecate the wrath or to conciliate the favour of these tutelary agents.

When a person of consequence dies, the relations and neighbours meet together, and manifest their sorrow by loud and dismal howlings. A bullock or goat is killed for such persons as come to assist at the funeral, which generally takes place the evening of the same day on which the party died; the negroes have no appropriate burial place, and frequently dig the grave in the floor of the deceased's hut, or in the shade of a favourite tree: the body is dressed in white cotton, and wrapt up in a mat; it is carried to the grave in the dusk of the evening by the relations. If the grave be without the walls of the town, a number of prickly bushes are laid upon it, to prevent the wolves from digging up the body; but our author never observed that any stone was placed over the grave as a monument or memorial.

With respect to employment, the men cultivate the ground or catch fish in large rivers, while the women manufacture cotton cloth. It is only the spinning and the dyeing, however, that are performed by the women, for the web, which is seldom more than four inches broad, is wove by the men, in a loom made exactly upon the same principle as that of Europe. As the arts of weaving, dyeing, sewing, &c. may be easily acquired, those who exercise them are not considered in Africa as following any particular profession, for almost every slave can weave, and every boy can sew. The only artists which are distinctly acknowledged as such by the negroes, and who value themselves on exercising appropriate and peculiar trades are the manufacturers of leather and of iron. The first of these are called Karrankea, or, as the word is sometimes pronounced, Ganngay; they are to be found in almost every town, and they frequently travel through the country in the exercise of their calling: they tan and dress leather with great expedition, by steeping the hide first in the mixture of wood ashes and water until it parts with the hair, and afterwards by using the pounded leaves of a tree, called gos, as an astringent.

The manufacturers in iron are not so numerous as the Karrankeas; but they appear to have studied their business with equal diligence. The negroes on the coast being chiefly supplied with iron from the European traders, never attempt the manufacturing of this article themselves; but in the inland parts the natives smelt this useful metal in such

quantities as not only to supply themselves from it with all necessary weapons and instruments, but even to make it an article of commerce with some of the neighbouring states. During our author's stay at Kamalia, there was a smelting furnace at a small distance from the hut where he lodged, and the owner and his workmen had no secret about the manner of conducting the operation, but readily allowed them to examine the furnace and assist them in breaking the iron stone. The process of it is needless to describe, though it be proper to observe that the mass of metal obtained by it was rather steel than iron. Most of the African blacksmiths are acquainted also with the method of smelting gold, in which process they use an alkaline salt, obtained from a lie of burnt corn-stalks evaporated to dryness: they likewise draw the gold into wire, and form it into a variety of ornaments, some of which are executed with a great deal of taste and ingenuity.

The Jaloffs are an active, powerful, and warlike people: their noses, says Mr. Park, are not so much depressed, nor their lips so protuberant as those of the generality of Africans, and though their skin is of the deepest black, they are considered by the white traders as the most sightly negroes in that part of the continent where they live. They are divided into several independent states or kingdoms, which are frequently at war with their neighbours or with each other. In their manners, superstitions, and government they have a greater resemblance to the Mandingos than any other nation, but excel them in the manufacture of cotton cloth, spinning the wool to a finer thread, weaving it in a broader loom, and dyeing it of a better colour. They make a very good soap by boiling ground nuts in water, and then adding a lie of wood ashes.

The Senegal and Gambia were till lately considered as two different branches of the same river, the Niger; but it is now certain that they are all three distinct rivers, and that the Niger runs eastward as the antients had asserted. They all spring in the country of Manding, the head of the Senegal river being about 80 miles west of that of the Niger, and 100 miles east from that of the Gambia. Its banks are inhabited by several Mahomedan nations, among whom Mr. Park found it very difficult to travel, on account of their hatred to the Christians. Major Rennel is of opinion that the waters of the Niger have no direct communication with the sea, but that they spread out into a great lake, and are evaporated by the heat of the sun.

That part of Guinea known by the name of the Grain and Ivory Coast extends about 500 miles. The soil is said to be in general fertile, producing abundance of rice and roots; indigo and cotton thrive without cultivation, and tobacco would be excellent if carefully manufactured; they have fish in plenty, and their flocks increase, and their trees are loaded with fruit. They make a cotton cloth, which sells well on the coast. In a word, the county is rich and the commerce advantageous, and might be greatly augmented by such as would cultivate the friendship of the natives. These are represented by some writers as a rude, treacherous people, whilst several other authors of credit give them a very different character, describing them as sensible, courteous, and the fairest traders on the coast of Guinea. In the collection they are said to be averse to drinking to excess, and such as do are severely punished by the king's order. On enquiry why there is such a disagreement in the character given of these people, it appears that though they are naturally inclined to be kind to strangers, with whom they are fond of trading, yet the

frequent injuries done them by the Europeans have occasioned their being suspicious and shy, the same cause has been the occasion of the ill treatment they have sometimes given to innocent strangers, who have attempted to trade with them. As the Europeans have no settlement on this part of Guinea, the trade is carried on by signals from the ships, on the appearance of which the natives usually come on board, in their canoes, bringing their gold-dust, ivory, &c. which has given opportunity to some villanous Europeans to carry them off with their effects or retain them on board till a ransom is paid. It is noted by some that since the European voyagers have carried away several of these people, their mistrust is so great that it is very difficult to prevail on them to come on board.

Next adjoining to the Ivory Coast are those called the Gold Coast and the Slave Coast; authors are not agreed about their bounds, but their extent together along the coast may be about 500 miles. And as the policy, produce, and economy of these two kingdoms of Guinea are much the same, they shall be described together.

Here the Europeans have the greatest number of forts and factories, from whence, by means of the negro factors, a trade is carried on above 700 miles back in the inland country, whereby great numbers of slaves are procured, as well by means of the wars which arise among the negroes, or are fomented by the Europeans, as those brought from the back country. Here we find the natives more reconciled to the European manners and trade, but at the same time much more inured to war, and ready to assist the European traders in procuring loadings for the great number of vessels which come yearly on those coasts for slaves. This part of Guinea is agreed by historians to be in general extraordinary fruitful and agreeable, producing (according to the difference of the soil) vast quantities of rice and other grain, plenty of fruit and roots, palm-wine and oil, and fish in great abundance, with much tame and wild cattle.

The kingdom of Whidah on the Slave Coast is said by Smith and Bosman "to be one of the most delightful countries in the world. The great number and variety of tall, beautiful, and shady trees, which seem planted in groves, the verdant fields, every where cultivated, and no otherwise divided than by those groves, and in some places a small foot path, together with a great number of villages, contribute to afford the most delightful prospect; the whole country being a fine, easy, and almost imperceptible ascent for the space of 40 or 50 miles from the sea: the farther you go from the sea the more beautiful and populous the country appears. That the natives were kind and obliging, and so industrious that no place which was thought fertile could escape being planted, even within the hedges which enclose their villages. And that as soon as they had reaped they sowed again."

Snelgrave also says "the country appears full of towns and villages, and being a rich soil and well cultivated, looks like an entire garden." In the Collection, the husbandry of the negroes is described to be carried on with great regularity. "The rainy season approaching, they go into the fields and woods, to fix on a proper place for sowing; and as here is no property in ground, the king's licence being obtained, the people go out in troops, and first clear the ground from bushes and weeds, which they burn: the field being thus cleared, they dig it up a foot deep, and so let it remain for eight or ten days, till the rest of their neighbours have disposed their ground in the same manner. They then consult

about sowing, and for that end assemble at the king's court the next fetish day: the king's grain must be sown first: they then go again to the field and give the ground a second digging, and sow their seed. Whilst the king or governor's land is sowing, he sends out wine and flesh, ready dressed, enough to serve the labourers. Afterwards they in like manner sow the ground allotted for their neighbours, as diligently as that of the king's, by whom they are also feasted, and so continue to work in a body for the public benefit, till every man's ground is tilled and sowed. None but the king and a few great men are exempted from this labour. The grain soon sprouts out of the ground. When it is about a man's height, and begins to ear, they raise a wooden house in the centre of the field, covered with straw, in which they set their children to watch their corn, and fright away the birds."

Bosman speaks in commendation of the civility kindness, and great industry of the natives of Whidah. This is confirmed by Smith, who says, "the natives here seem to be the most gentleman-like negroes in Guinea, abounding with good manners and ceremony to each other. The inferior pay the utmost deference and respect to the superior, as do wives to their husbands, and children to their parents. All here are naturally industrious, and find constant employment, the men in agriculture and the women in spinning and weaving cotton. The men, whose chief talent lies in husbandry, are unacquainted with arms, otherwise, being a numerous people, they could have made a better defence against the king of Dahome, who subdued them without much trouble." According to the Collection, there are, throughout the Gold Coast, regular markets, in all villages, furnished with provisions and merchandize, held every day of the week except Tuesday, whence they supply not only the inhabitants but the European ships. The negro women are very expert in buying and selling, and extremely industrious, for they will repair daily to market from a considerable distance, loaded like pack-horses, with a child perhaps at their back, and a heavy burden on their heads. After selling their wares, they buy fish and other necessaries, and return home loaded as they came. There is a market held at Sabi every fourth day, also a weekly one in the province of Apologua, which is so resorted to that there are usually 5 or 6000 merchants. Their markets are so well regulated and governed that seldom any disorder happens; each species of merchandize and merchants have a separate place allotted them by themselves. The buyers may haggle as much as they will, but it must be without noise or fraud. To keep order, the king appoints a judge, who, with four officers well armed, inspects the markets, hears all complaints, and in a summary way decides all differences, he has power to seize and sell as slaves all who are catched in stealing or disturbing the peace. In these markets are to be sold men, women, children, oxen, sheep, goats, and fowls of all kinds; European cloths, linen and woollen, printed calicoes, silk, grocery ware, china, gold dust, iron in bars, &c. in a word, most sorts of European goods as well as the produce of Africa and Asia: they have other markets resembling our fairs, once or twice a year, to which all the country repair, for they take care to order the day so in different governments as not to interfere with each other.

The kingdom of Benin, which is next on the coast, though it extends but about 170 miles on the sea, yet spreads so far inland as to be esteemed the most potent kingdom in Guinea. By accounts, the soil and produce appear to be in a great measure like those

before described, and the natives are represented as a reasonable, good-natured people. Artus says, "they are a sincere, inoffensive people, and do no injustice either to one another or to strangers." Smith confirms this account, and says, "that the inhabitants generally are very good-natured and exceeding courteous and civil. When the Europeans make them presents, which, in their coming thither to trade, they always do, they endeavour to return them doubly." Bosman tells us, "that his countrymen, the Dutch, who were often obliged to trust them till they return the next year, were sure to be honestly paid their whole debts."

There is in Benin a considerable order in government, theft, murder, and adultery being severely punished. Smith says, "their towns are governed by officers appointed by the king, who have power to decide in civil cases, and to raise the public taxes, but in criminal cases they must send to the king's court, which is held at the town of Oedo or Great Benin: this town, which covers a large extent of ground, is about 60 miles from the sea." Barbot tells us, "that it contains 30 streets 20 fathoms wide, and almost two miles long, commonly extending in a straight line from one gate to another; that the gates are guarded by soldiers; that in these streets markets are held every day for cattle, ivory, cotton, and many sorts of European goods. This large town is divided into several wards or districts, each governed by its respective king of a street, as they call them, to administer justice and to keep good order. The inhabitants are very civil and good-natured, condescending to what the Europeans require of them in a civil way." The same author confirms what has been said by others of their justice in the payment of their debts, and adds, "that they above all other Guineans are very honest and just in their dealings, and they have such an aversion to theft, that, by the law of the country, it is punished with death." We are told by the same author, "that the king of Benin is able upon occasion to maintain an army of 100,000 men, but that for the most part he does not keep above 30,000.

The last divisions of Guinea from which slaves are imported are the kingdoms of Congo and Angola; these lie to the south of Benin, extending, with the intermediate land, about 1200 miles on the coast. As great numbers of the natives of both these kingdoms profess the Christian religion, which was long since introduced by the Portuguese, who made early settlements in that country, as have been already described.

The Europeans have for several centuries carried on a commerce in slaves, which they have transported to the West India islands and other American settlements. As this commerce has been greatly disapproved by humane persons, colonies have been sent to Sierra Leona and the island of Bulam, with intent to gradually civilize the Africans and establish such plantations as might supercede the use of slaves in the Indies. We are, however, sorry to state, that the success of these undertakings have not hitherto corresponded with the benevolent designs of the projectors.

CHAPTER II.

SOUTH OF AFRICA——*Commonly called Caffraria or the country of the Hottentots.*

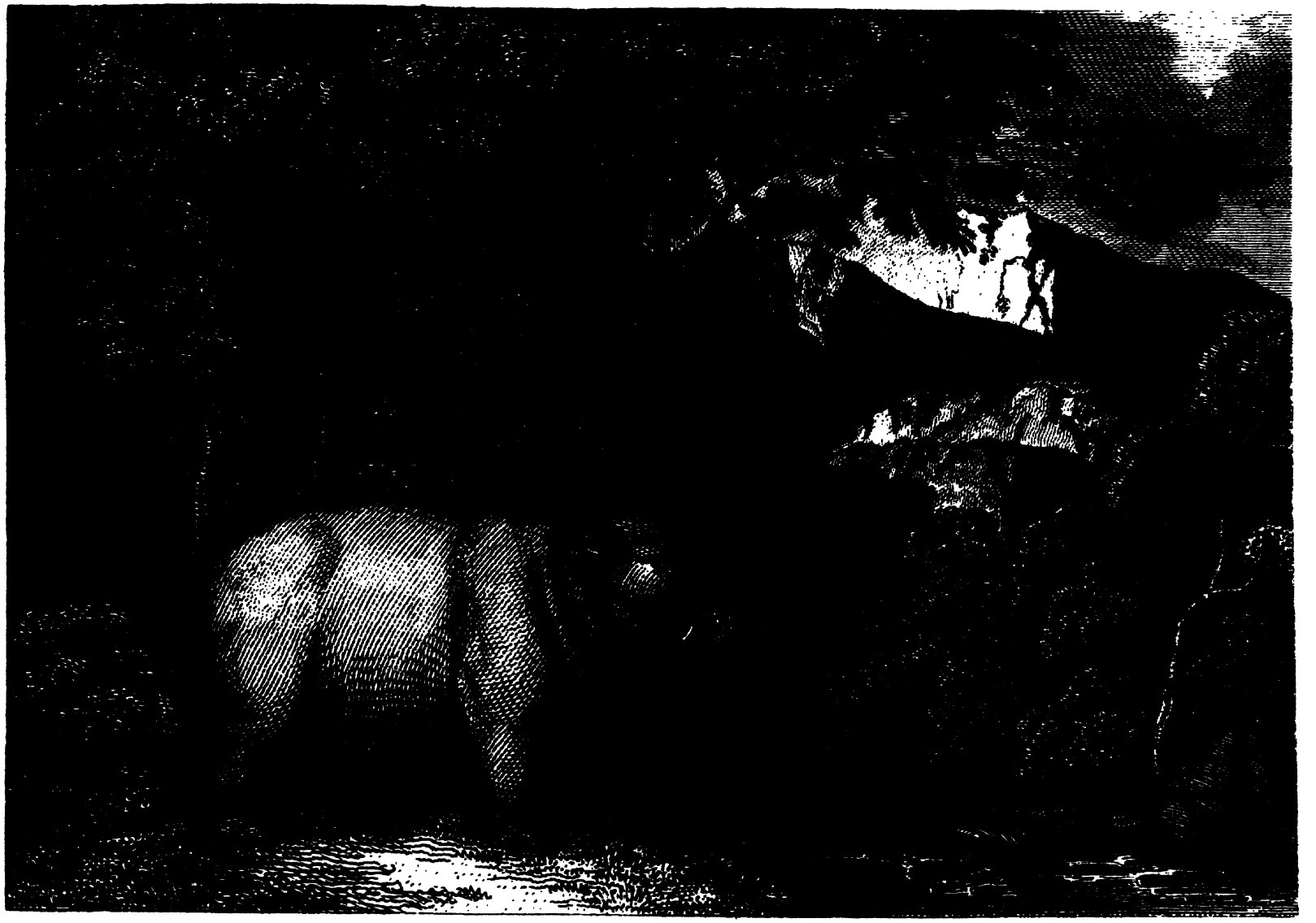
THAT country which is usually denominated Caffraria, from the word Cafir, signifying a heathen African, as Bushreen does a Mahometan, surrounds the empire of Monomotapa in form of a horse-shoe, extending, according to Magin, from the Negroest of Cabo as far as the Cape of Good Hope, and from thence northward to the river Magnica or Rio de St. Spirita, including Mattatan, a distant kingdom. According to Sanutus, this coast, beginning at the mountains of the Moon, under the tropic of Capricorn, in 23½° south latitude, extends north beyond the Cape to the coast of Zanquebar, having the Indian sea on the east, the Ethiopic on the west, the Southern ocean on the south, and on the north the kingdoms of Mattatan, Monomotapa, and the coast of Zanquebar, or rather the Mountains of the Moon, which divide it from the rest of the continent.

The Europeans first became acquainted with this country in the year 1493, when Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese admiral, discovered the most southerly part of Africa, now called the Cape of Good Hope, but by him Cabo dos totos tormentos, or Cape of all plagues, on account of the storms he met with in the neighbourhood; but John, then king of Portugal, having, from the account of Diaz, concluded that a passage to the East Indies was now discovered, changed the name to the Cape of Good Hope, which it still retains. In 1497 it was circumnavigated by Gasco de Gama, who made a voyage to India that way; however it remained useless to Europeans till the year 1650, when Van Riebeck, a Dutch surgeon, first saw the advantages that would accrue to the East India company in Holland from a settlement at such a convenient distance both from home and from India. The colony which he planted has ever since continued in the hands of the Dutch, has greatly increased in value, and is visited by all the European ships trading to the East Indies.

The country now possessed by the Dutch is of pretty considerable extent, and comprehends that part of the African coast on the west, called Terra de Natal. It is naturally barren and mountainous, but the industry of the Dutch hath overcome all natural difficulties, and now it produces not only a sufficiency of all the necessaries of life for the inhabitants, but also for the refreshment of all the Europeans who pass and repass that way.

The most remarkable mountains in this country are, Table-mountain, Devil's-tower, Lion's-head, and the Tiger-hills. The three first lie near Table-bay, and surround Table-alley, where the Cape town stands. Mr. Foster, in his voyage, informs us that the extremity of Africa towards the south is a mass of high mountains, of which the outermost are craggy, black, and barren, consisting of a coarse granite, which contains no heterogeneous parts such as petrefied shells, &c. nor any volcanic productions. The ground gradually rises on all sides towards the three mountains which lie round the bottom of the bay, keeping low and level only near the sea-side, and growing [illegible] in the isthmus between false and table bays, where a salt rivulet falls into the latter. The marshy part has some verdure but intermixed with a great deal of sand. The higher grounds, which,

A HOTTENTOT MAN and WOMAN with a view of the TABLE MOUNTAIN, and CAPE TOWN at the Cape of Good Hope.



W.M.Craig del.

THE HIPPOPOTAMUS of the CAPE of GOOD HOPE.

from the sea side, have a parched and dreary appearance, are, however, covered with a variety of plants, among which are a prodigious number of shrubs, but scarce one or two species that deserve the name of trees; there are also a few small plantations wherever a little run of water moistens the ground. The ascent of Table-mount is very steep and difficult, on account of the number of loose stones which roll away under the feet of the traveller. About the middle of the mountain is a bold grand chasm, whose walls are perpendicular, and often impending rocks piled up in strata. Small rills of water ooze out of crevices or fall from precipices in drops, giving life to hundreds of plants and low shrubs in the chasm. The summit of the mountain is very level, very barren, and bare of soil; several cavities however are filled with rain water, or contain a small quantity of vegetable earth, from whence a few odoriferous plants draw their nourishment. Some antelopes, howling baboons, solitary vultures, and toads, are sometimes to be met with on the mountain: the view from thence is very extensive and picturesque; the bay seems a small pond or bason, and the ships in it dwindled to little boats, the town under our feet and the little compartments of its gardens look like the work of children."

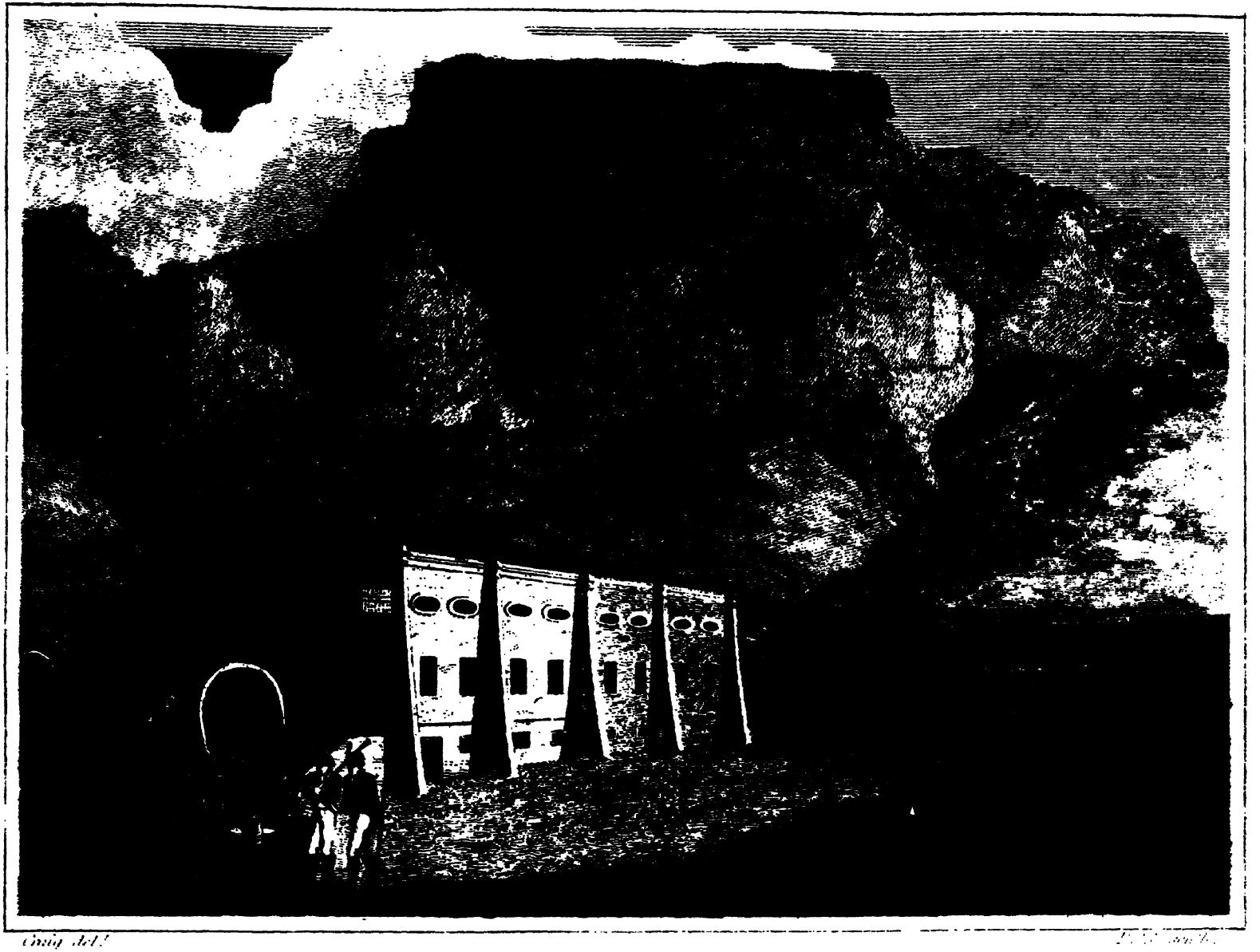
Most accounts of this country that have been published mention a surprising phenomenon which is annually to be seen from the top of Table-hill from September to March, namely a white cloud hovering on its top, and called by the sailors the devil's table-cloth: this cloud is said by some at first to appear no bigger than a barley-corn, it then increases to the size of a walnut, and soon after covers the whole top of the mount. But according to Mr. Kolben, it is never less on its first appearance than the size of a large ox, often bigger. It hangs in several fleeces over the Table-hill and the Wind or Devil's-hill, which fleeces, at last uniting, form a large cloud that covers the summits of these two hills. After this has rested for some time without change or motion, the wind bursts out suddenly from it with the utmost fury. The skirts of the cloud are white, but much more compact than the matter of common clouds; the upper parts are of a leaden colour. No rain falls from it, but sometimes it discovers a great deal of humidity, at which times it is of a darker colour, and the wind issuing from it is broken, raging by fits of short continuance. In its usual state the wind keeps up its first fury unabated for one, two, three, or eight days, and sometimes for a whole month together; the cloud seems all the while undiminished, though little fleeces are from time to time detached from it, and hurried down from the sides of the hills, vanishing when they reach the bottom, so that, during the storm, the cloud seems to be supplied with new matter. When the cloud begins to brighten up, these supplies fail, and the wind proportionably abates. At length the cloud growing [illegible], the wind ceases. During the continuance of these south-east winds, the Table valley is torn by furious whirlwinds. If they blow warm they are generally of short duration, and in this case the cloud soon disappears; this wind [illegible] blows till [illegible] and never longer than till towards midnight, though the cloud remains, but then [illegible] clear; but when the wind blows cold it is a sure sign that it will last for some [illegible] as noon and midnight excepted; when it seems to be still to recover itself, and then lets [illegible] again.

The principal place in this part of Africa is Cape-town, at the Cape of Good Hope, an important Dutch settlement, which has lately fallen into the hands of the English. It is thus described by Mr. White, in his journal of a voyage to New South Wales. From the

shipping he observes the town appears pleasantly situated, but small, a deception that arises from its being built in a valley, with such stupendous mountains directly behind it. On landing, however, you are surprised and agreeably disappointed to find it not only extensive but well built, and in a good style, the streets spacious, and intersecting each other at right angles with great precision. This exactness in the formation of the streets, when viewed from the Table Land, is observed to be very great: the houses in general are built of stone, cemented together with a glutinous kind of earth, which serves as mortar, and afterwards neatly plastered and white-washed with lime. As to their height, they do not in common exceed two stories, on account of the violence of the wind, which, at some seasons of the year, blows with great strength and fury. For the same reason thatch has been usually preferred to tiles or shingles, but the bad effects that have proceeded from this mode when fires happen, has induced the inhabitants in all their new buildings to give the preference to slates and tiles: the lower parts of the houses, according to the custom of the Dutch nation, are not only uncommonly neat and clean in appearance, but they are really so; and the furniture is rather rich than elegant. But this is by no means the case with the bed rooms or upper apartments, which are very barely and ill-furnished. The streets are rough, uneven, and unpaved. But many of the houses have a space flagged before the door, and others have trees planted before them, which form a pleasant shade, and give an agreeable air to the streets.

The only landing place is at the east end of the town, where there is a wooden quay, running some spaces into the sea, with several cranes on it, for the convenience of loading and unloading the scoots that come along-side; to this place excellent water is conveyed by pipes, which makes the watering of ships both easy and expeditious. Close to the quay, on the left hand, stands the castle and principal fortress, a strong extensive work, having excellent accommodations for the troops and for many of the civil officers belonging to the company. Within the gates the company have their principal stores, which are spacious as well as convenient: this fort covers and defends the east part of the town and harbour, as Amsterdam fort does the west part. The latter, which has been built since commodore Johnston's expedition, and wherein both French and Dutch judgment have been united, to render it effectual and strong, is admirably planned, and calculated to annoy and harrass ships coming into the bay. Some smaller detached fortifications extend along the coast both to the east and west, and make landing, which was not the case before the late war, hazardous and difficult. In a word, Cape town is at this time fortified with strength, regularity, and judgment.

The governor's house is delightfully situated, nearly in the centre of an extensive garden, the property of the Dutch East India company, usefully planted, and very elegantly laid out. The governor's family make what use they please of the produce of the garden, which is various and abundant; but the original intention of the company in appropriating so extensive a piece of ground to this purpose was, that their hospital, which is generally pretty full when their ships arrive after long voyages, might be well supplied with fruits and vegetables, and likewise that their ships might receive a similar supply. This garden is as public as St. James's park, and for its handsome, pleasant and well-shaded walks, is much frequented by persons of every description, but particularly by the fashionable and gay. At the upper end of the principal walk is a small place walled in, for the purpose



VIEW of the NEW THEATRE at the CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

of confining some large ostriches and a few deer; and a little to the right of this is a small menagery, in which the company have half a dozen wild animals, and about the same number of curious birds.

There are two churches in the town, one large, plain, and unadorned, for the Calvinists, the prevailing sect, and a smaller one for the Lutherans. The hospital, which is large and extensive, is situated at the upper end of the town, close to the company's garden; where the convalescents reap the benefit of a wholesome pure air, perfumed with the exhalations of a great variety of rich fruit-trees, aromatic shrubs, and odorous plants and flowers, and likewise have the use of every production of it.

Besides their hospital, the Dutch East India company have several other public buildings, which tend to improve the appearance of the town; the two principal of these are the stables and a house for their slaves: the former is a handsome range of buildings, capable of containing an incredible number of horses: those they have at the Cape are small, spirited, and full of life: the latter is a building of considerable extent, where the slaves, both male and female, have separate apartments, in a very comfortable style, to reside in, after the fatigues and toil of the day, and there are several officers placed over them, who have commodious apartments, and treat them humanely.

The inhabitants of the Cape, though in their persons large, stout, and athletic, have not all that phlegm about them which is the characteristic of Dutchmen in general. The physical influence of climate may, in some degree, account for this; for it is well known that in all southern latitudes the temper and disposition of the people are more gay, and that they are more inclined to luxury and amusements of every kind than the inhabitants of the northern hemisphere. The ladies are lively, good-natured, and familiar, and from a peculiar gay turn, they admit of liberties that would be thought reprehensible in England, though, perhaps, they as seldom overleap the bounds of virtue as the women of other countries.

The heavy draft-work about the Cape is mostly performed by oxen, which are here brought to an uncommon degree of usefulness and docility. It is not uncommon to see 14, 16, and sometimes 18 in one of their teams, when the roads are heavy, they sometimes, though rarely, yoke 20; all which the Hottentots, Malays, and Cape Slaves have in the most perfect subjection and obedience. One of these fellows places himself on the fore part of the waggon, or, when loaded, on the top of the load, and with a tremendous long whip, which, from its size, he is obliged to hold in both hands, manages these creatures with inexpressible address. When he finds expedition needful, he can make them keep what pace he chooses, either trot or gallop (a gait performed or kept up with difficulty by European oxen), and that with as much ease as if he was driving horses. They likewise manage horses with the same dexterity, and to see one of them driving three, four, five, and sometimes six pair at hand, with one of th[illegible] plete master of the whip in England [illegible] numerous at the Cape, as the inhabitants in [illegible] better suit the roughness of the country. The governor and some few of the p[illegible] people keep coaches, which are a good deal in the English style, and always drawn by six horses.

The planters of the Cape Country, it is observed by M. Vaillant, may be divided into

three classes; those who reside in the vicinity of the Cape, within a distance of five or six leagues, those who live farther off in the interior parts of the colony, and lastly those, who, more distant still, are found at the extremity of the frontiers among the Hottentots.

The first are opulent proprietors, and have handsome country-houses, may be likened to what were formerly called in France petits seigneurs terriers, and differ extremely from the other planters in ease and luxury, and particularly in their manners, which are haughty and disdainful. Such is the result of wealth. The second, simple, kind, hospitable, are cultivators who live upon the fruits of their labours. Here we have an example of the good effects of mediocrity. The last, though poor enough, yet too indolent to derive subsistence from the soil, have no other resource than the produce of some cattle, which they feed as they can. Like the Bedouin Arabs, they think much of the trouble of driving them from canton to canton, and from one pasturage to another: this wandering life prevents them from building any settled habitations. When their flocks oblige them to sojourn for a while in the same place, they construct in haste a rude kind of hut, which they cover with mats, after the manner of the Hottentots, whose customs they have adopted, and from whom they in no respect differ, but in their complexion and features. And here the evil is that there is no precise situation in social life to which these miserable beings belong.

The natives of this country are called Hottentots, and talk a language which is scarcely to be learned by any other nation. They are as tall as the generality of Europeans, though more slender in their persons, which circumstance Dr. Sparrman attributes to their scanty supply of food, and not accustoming themselves to hard labour. The characteristic of the nation, however, and which he thinks have not been observed by any one before, is that they have small hands and feet in proportion to the other parts of their body: the distance between the eyes appears greater than in Europeans, by reason of the root of the nose being very low; the tip is pretty flat, and the iris and the eye have generally a dark brown cast, sometimes approaching to black: their skin is of a yellowish brown, sometimes like that of an European who has the jaundice in a high degree, though this colour does not in the least appear in the whites of their eyes; their lips are thinner than those of their neighbours, the Negroes, Caffres, or Mosambiques. "In fine (says our author), their mouths are of a middling size, and almost always furnished with a set of the finest teeth that can be seen, and, taken together with the rest of their features, as well as their carriage, shape, and every motion, in short, their tout ensemble indicates health and delight, or at least an air of sans souci. This careless mien, however, discovers marks at the same time both of alacrity and resolution, qualities which the Hottentots in fact can show upon occasion." The hair of the head is black and frizzled; though not very close, and has so much the appearance of wool that it would be taken for it, were it not for its harshness. They have but seldom any appearance of a beard or hair upon other parts of their bodies, and when any thing of this kind happens to be visible it is always very slight.

They seldom practise washing, but smear themselves with soot and grease, and wear but few clothes: the men wear a small covering, made of the skin of a jackall, and the women two or sometimes three garments, like aprons; but as the outermost of those does not cover more than half the thigh, they are abundantly small for what we should term

The other garments worn by the Hottentots are formed of a sheep's skin with the woolly side turned inwards; this forming a kind of cloak, which is tied forwards over the breast; though sometimes, instead of a sheep's skin, some smaller kind of fur is used as a material. In warm weather they let this cloak hang carelessly over their shoulders, so that it reaches down to the calves of their legs, leaving the lower part of the breast, stomach, and fore-part of the legs and thighs bare, but in cold weather they wrap it round them, so that the fore-part of the body is likewise pretty well covered by it, as far as the knees. But as one sheep-skin is not sufficient for this purpose, they sew on a piece on the top at each side with a thong or catgut. In warm weather they sometimes wear the woolly side outwards, but more frequently take off the cloak altogether, and carry it under their arm: this cloak or krosse serves them not only for clothes but bedding also; and in this they lie on the bare ground, drawing up their bodies so close that the cloak is abundantly sufficient to cover them. The cloaks used by the women differ little from these already described, excepting only that they have a long peak on them, which they turn up, forming with it a little hood or pouch, with the hairy side inwards. In this they carry their little children, to which the mother's breasts are now and then thrown over their shoulders; a custom common among some other nations, where the breasts of the females, by continual want of support, grow to an enormous length. The men commonly wear no covering on their heads, though our author says he has seen one or two who wore a greasy night-cap, made of skin with the hair taken off: those who live nearest the colonists have taken a liking to the European hats, and wear them slouched all round, or with only one side turned up: the women also frequently go bare-headed though they sometimes wear a cap, made in the shape of a short truncated cone; this appears to be the section of some animal's stomach, and is perfectly black with soot and fat mixed up together: those caps are frequently prepared in such a manner as to look shaggy, others have the appearance of velvet, and, in our author's appearance are not inelegant. Over this they sometimes wear an oval wreath, or kind of crown, made of a buffaloe's hide, with the hair outermost. It is about four fingers breadth in height, and surrounds the head so as to go a little way down upon the forehead, and the same depth on the neck behind, without covering the upper part of the cap above described: the edges of this wreath, both upper and under, are always smooth and even, each of them set with a row of small shells, of the cypræa kind, to the number of more than 30, in such a manner that being placed quite close to one another, their beautiful white enamel, together with their mouths, are turned outwards. Between two rows of these shells run two others, parallel, or else waved and indented in various ways. The Hottentots never adorn their ears or noses as other savages do, though the latter are sometimes marked with a black streak of soot, at others, though more rarely, with a large spot of red lead, of which last, on festivals and holidays, they likewise put a little on their cheeks. The necks of the men are bare, but those of the women are ornamented with a thong of undressed leather, upon which are strung eight or ten shells; these, which are about the size of beans, have a white ground, with large black spots of different sizes, but as they are always made use of in a burnished state, the doctor is uncertain whether they be of that kind which is received in the Systema Naturæ under the name of merita, albicilla, or exuvia. These shells are sold at an enormous price, no less than a sheep for each; as it is said that they come from

the most distant coast of Caffraria. Both men and women are very fond of European beads, particularly the blue and white ones, of the size of a pea, of which they tie several rows round the middle and next to the girdles, which hold the coverings above mentioned. Besides these ornaments they use rings on their arms and legs, most of them made of thick leather straps, generally cut in a circular shape, which, by being beat and held over the fire, are rendered tough enough to retain the curviture that is given them. From these rings it has been almost universally believed that the Hottentots wrap guts about their legs, in order to eat them occasionally: the men wear from one to five or six of these rings on their arms, just above the wrist, but seldom on their legs: the matrons of a higher rank have frequently a considerable number of them, both on their arms and legs, especially on the latter, so that they are covered with them from the feet up to the knees: these rings are of various thicknesses, from that of a goose quill to two or three times that size. Sometimes they are made of pieces of leather, forming one entire ring; so that the arms and feet must be put through them when the wearer wishes to put them on: they are strung upon the legs small and great, without any nicety, but are so large that they shake and get twisted when the person walks. Rings of iron or copper, but especially of brass, of the size of a goose-quill, are considered more genteel than leather. However they are sometimes worn, along with the latter, to the number of six or eight at a time, particularly on the arms: the girls are not allowed to use any rings till they are marriageable. The Hottentots seldom wear any shoes, but those they do make use of are of the same form as those worn by the African peasants, by the Esthonians and Livonians, as well as by some Finlanders, so that it is impossible to say whether they are the invention of the Dutch or the Hottentots themselves: they are made of undressed leather, with the hairy side outward, without any other preparation than that of being beat and moistened. If it be a thick and stout hide, as that of a buffalo, it is kept for some hours in cow-dung, which renders it besides very soft and pliable. Some kind of grease is afterwards used for the same purpose. The shoes are then made in the following manner: they take a piece of leather, of a rectangular form, something longer and broader than the foot of the person for whom the shoes are intended; the two foremost corners are doubled up together, and sewed down so as to cover the fore part of the foot, but this seam may be avoided, and the shoes made much neater at the toes, by fitting immediately over them a cap taken from the membrane in the knee-joint of the hind leg of some animal. In order to make this piece of skin or leather rise up to the height of an inch on both sides of the foot, and close it in neatly, it is pierced with holes, at small distances, all round the edge, as far as [illegible]

[illegible] drawn inwards, and then raised up and pressed along the floor: the ends of the thong or gathering string are then threaded on both sides, through the upper edge of the hind quarters, to the height of about two inches, they are then carried forwards, in order to be drawn through two of the above-mentioned holes, on the inside of each rim. Lastly, they are tied over the instep, or, if it be thought necessary to tie the shoe still faster, they are carried crossways over the instep, and so downwards under the thong, which comes out from the hind-quarters, then upwards again over the ancle, and even round the leg itself, if the wearer chooses. Shoes of this kind are not without their advantages, they sit as

neat upon the foot as a stocking, and at the same time preserve their form: they are easily kept soft and pliable, by constantly wearing them, or, if at any time they should become somewhat hard, this is easily remedied by beating and greasing them: they are extremely light and cool, by reason that they do not cover so much of the foot as a common shoe: they wear very well, as they are without any seam, and the soles of the shoe are both tough and yielding: these field shoes, as they are called, being made of almost raw leather, are much more durable than those of tanned leather, which are burnt up by the African sands, and slip and roll about in them, being also very ready to be torn in a rocky soil, which is not the case with the others. The doctor is of opinion that these shoes would be particularly useful to sailors.

The huts of the Hottentots are built exactly alike, and we may readily give credit to our author when he tells us that they are done in a style of architecture which does not a little contribute to keep envy from insinuating itself under their roofs. Some of these huts are circular, and others of an oblong shape, resembling a round bee-hive or vault, the ground plot being from 18 to 24 feet in diameter. The highest are so low that it is scarce ever possible for a middle sized man to stand upright, even in the centre of the arch; "but (says our author) neither the lowness thereof, nor that of the door, which is but just three feet high, can, perhaps, be considered as any inconvenience to a Hottentot, who finds no difficulty in stooping and crawling upon all fours, and is at any time more inclined to lie down than to stand. The fire-place is in the middle of each hut, by which means the walls are not so much exposed to danger from fire. From this situation of the fire-place also the Hottentots derive this additional advantage, that they can all sit round it in a circle round it, enjoying equally the warmth of the fire. The door, low as it is, alone lets in day-light or lets out the smoke; and so much are these people accustomed to live in such smoky mansions, that their eyes are never effected by it in the least, nor even by the mephitic vapour of the fuel, which to the Europeans would be certain death.

The frame of the arched roof is composed of slender rods or sprays of trees: these being previously bent into a proper form, are laid either whole or pieced, some parallel to one another, others crosswise, after which they are strengthened by binding others round them in a circular form, with withes. All these are taken principally from the elitoria conoides, which grow plentifully in this country near the rivers. Large mats are then placed very neatly over this lattice work, so as perfectly to cover the whole: the aperture which is left for the door is closed occasionally by a skin or piece of matting: these mats are made of a kind of cane or reed, in the following manner: the reeds being laid parallel to one another, are fastened together with sinews or catgut, which they have had an opportunity of getting from the Europeans, so that they have it in their power to make them as long as they please and as broad as the length of the reeds, which is from six to ten feet. The colonists make use of the same kind of matting next to the tilts of their waggons, to prevent the sail-cloth from being rubbed and worn, and likewise to help to keep out the rain.

In a craal, or Hottentot village the huts are most commonly disposed in a circle, with the doors inwards, by which means a kind of court-yard is formed, where the cattle are kept at night. The milk, as soon as taken from the cow, is put to other milk, which is curdled and kept in a leather sack, with the hairy side inwards, as being the most cleanly, so that thus the milk is never drunk sweet. In some northern districts, where the land

is dry and parched, both Hottentots and colonists are shepherds. When a Hottentot has a mind to shift his dwelling, he lays all the mats, skins, and rolls of which it is composed on the backs of his cattle, which, to a stranger, makes a monstrous, unwieldy, and ever ridiculous appearance.

There is a species of Hottentots, named Boshiesmen, who dwell in the woody and mountainous parts, and subsist entirely by plunder. They use poisoned arrows, which they shoot from bows about a yard long and an inch in thickness in the middle, very much pointed at both ends. Dr. Sparrman does not know the wood of which they are made, but thinks that it is not very elastic: the strings were made some of sinews, and others of a kind of hemp, or the inner bark of some vegetable, but most of them in a very slovenly manner: the arrows are about a foot and a half long, headed with bone and a triangular bit of iron, having also a piece of quill bound on very strongly with sinews, about an inch and a half from the top, in order to prevent it from being easily drawn out of the flesh: the whole is lastly covered over with a very deadly poison of the consistence of an extract. Their quivers are two feet long, and four inches in diameter, and are supposed by our author to be made of the branch of a tree hollowed out, or more probably, of the bark of one of the branches taken off whole, the bottom and cover being made of leather. It is daubed on the outside with an unctuous substance, which grows hard when dry, and is lined about the aperture with the skin of the yellow serpent, supposed to be the most deadly in all that part of the world. The poison they make use of is taken from the most venomous serpents, and ignorant as the Hottentots are, they all know that the poison of serpents may be swallowed with safety.

The Houzouanas are a wandering people, which are considered by Vaillant as the stem from which the various nations inhabiting the South of Africa are derived: their mode of life is something the same as that of the Boshiesmen, as they subsist by hunting, and make frequent incursions to plunder the colonists. Though superior in strength and courage to any of the neighbouring nations, they are but of low stature, and a person five feet four inches in height is accounted among them very tall; but in their little bodies, perfectly well proportioned, are united with surprising strength and agility, a certain air of assurance, boldness, and haughtiness, which awes the beholder, and with which our author was greatly pleased. Of all the savage races, he saw none that appeared to be endowed with so active a mind and so hardy a constitution.

Their head, though it exhibits the principal characteristics of that of the Hottentot, is, however, rounder towards the chin; they are also not so black in complexion, but have the real colour of the Malays, distinguished at the Cape by the name of bouguine: their hair, more woolly, is so short that he imagined at first their heads to have been shaved: the nose too is still flatter than that of the Hottentots, or rather they seem altogether destitute of a nose, what they have consisting only of two broad nostrils, which project at most but five or six lines. From this conformation of the nose, a Houzouana, when seen in profile, is the reverse of handsome, and considerably resembles an ape. When beheld in front, he presents, on the first view, an extraordinary appearance, as half the face seems to be forehead. The features, however, are so expressive, and the eyes so large and lively that, notwithstanding this singularity of look, the countenance is tolerably agreeable.

As the heat of the climate in which he lives renders clothing unnecessary, he continues, during the whole year, almost entirely naked, having no other covering than a very small jackal skin fastened round his loins by two thongs, the extremities of which hang down to his knees. Hardened by this constant habit of nakedness, he becomes so insensible to the variations of the atmosphere, that when he removes from the burning sands of the level country, to the snow and hoar-frost of his mountains, he seems indifferent to, and not even to feel the cold.

His hut in no wise resembles that of the Hottentot. It appears as if cut vertically through the middle, so that the hut of a Hottentot would make two of those of the Houzouanas. During their emigrations they leave them standing in order, that if any other horde of that nation pass that way, they may make use of them. When on a journey, they have nothing to repose on but a mat suspended from two sticks, and placed in an inclined disposition; they often even sleep on the bare ground; a projecting rock is then sufficient to shelter them, for every thing is suited to a people, whose constitutions are proof against the severest fatigue. If, however, they stop any where to sojourn for a while, and find materials proper for constructing huts, they then form a kraal, but they abandon it on their departure, as is the case with all the huts which they erect.

This custom of labouring for others of their tribe announces a social character and a benevolent disposition. They are, indeed, not only affectionate husbands and good fathers, but excellent companions. When they inhabit a kraal there is no such thing among them as private property, whatever they possess is in common. If two hordes of the same nation meet, the reception is on both sides friendly, they afford each other mutual protection, and confer reciprocal obligations. In short, they treat one another as brethren, though, perhaps, they are perfect strangers, and have never seen each other before.

Active and nimble by nature, the Houzouanas consider it as amusement to climb mountains and the most elevated peaks, and they conducted M. Vaillant, his servants, and cattle, over precipices and through defiles, which he and his Hottentots would have deemed absolutely impassable. The only arms of this people are bows and arrows, in the use of which they are very expert: the arrows, which are uncommonly short, are carried on the shoulder in a quiver about 18 inches in length and four in diameter, made of the back of the aloe, and covered with the skin of a large species of lizard, which these wanderers find in all their rivers, particularly on the banks of the Orange and Fish-river.

The Niniquas or Namacquas are divided into two nations, the greater and the less; they inhabit large tracts of country, but are far from numerous; they are represented as great cowards, and to tremble at the name of a Houzouana.

The Koraquas are taller than the Hottentots, and inhabit a very dry country on the borders of the Niniquas.

The Caffres differ considerably from the Hottentots, from their customs, manners, and appearance. In the hot season the Caffres go always naked, and retain nothing but their ornaments. In cold weather they wear krosses made of calves or oxen's hides, which reach down to the ground, but whatever the weather be, both sexes go bare-headed, though rarely fix a plume of feathers in their hair.

The Caffre huts are more spacious and higher than those of the Hottentots, and have

also a more regular form. The frames of them are constructed of wooden work, well put together, and very solid, being intended to last for a long time: for the Caffres applying to agriculture, which the free Hottentots do not, remain fixed to one spot, unless something unexpected interrupt their repose.

A more perceptible industry, an acquaintance with some of the most necessary arts of life, a little knowledge of agriculture, and a few religious dogmas, seem to announce that the Caffres approach much nearer to civilization than the Hottentots. They entertain a tolerably exalted idea of the Supreme Being and his power, they believe that the good will be rewarded and the wicked punished in a future state; but they have no notion of creation, which indeed was not admitted by the sages of Greece and Rome. They practise circumcision, but can give no account of its origin among them, or of the purpose for which the practice is continued.

Polygamy is used among the Caffres, and on the death of a father, the male children and their mothers share the succession among them. The girls remain with their mothers, without property of any kind, until they can procure husbands. One very singular custom of the Caffres is that they do not in general inter their dead, but transport them from the kraal to an open ditch, which is common to the whole horde. At this ditch savage animals feed at their leisure, on the multitude of carcases which are heaped together. Funeral honours are due only to kings and the chiefs of each horde, whose bodies are covered with a heap of stones, collected in the form of a dome.

This nation is governed by a general, chief, or king, whose power is very limited. He appoints, however, the subordinate chiefs over the different hordes, and through them communicates his directions or orders. The arms of the Caffres are a club two feet and a half in length, and, where thickest, three inches in diameter, and a plain lance or assagey. He despises poisoned arrows, which are so much used by some of the neighbouring nations, and, with his two simple weapons, seeks always to meet his enemy face to face in the field. The Hottentot, on the contrary, concealed under a rock or behind a bush, deals out destruction without being exposed to danger. The one is a perfidious tyger, which rushes treacherously on his prey; the other is a generous lion, which, having given warning of his approach, makes his attack boldly, and perishes if he prevail not against his antagonist.

The attention of pious and humane persons, both in Europe and Africa, has been, of late years, powerfully excited by the state of the natives of this part of Africa; schools have been opened for the instruction of the Hottentots, and the labours of several very respectable missionaries appear likely to produce considerable effect in diffusing the benefits of religion and civilization among the Boshmen, Nimiquas, and Caffres.

CHAPTER III.

Anzico, Monemugi, Monomotapa, Sofala, and the Islands of Madagascar, Maurites, Bourbon, and Comora.

THE kingdom of Anzico is bounded on the north by Nubia; on the south by Congo; on the west by Loango; and on the east by Monemugi. Their king, who is styled the great Micoco, is esteemed the most powerful monarch in Africa. They are said to be cannibals, and to have regular markets of human flesh; but this is by some supposed to be a mistake, arising from their eating of apes. They are neat, well proportioned, and strong, wandering about from place to place, without either sowing or reaping. They are dreaded for their extreme brutality, and never traded with by the Europeans. Their language is barbarous and difficult to be learned, even by the inhabitants of Congo. The most distinguished among them wear red and black caps, of Portuguese velvet; the lower ranks go naked from the waist upwards, and, to preserve their health, anoint their bodies with a composition of pounded white sandal-wood and palm-oil. Their arms are battle-axes and small but very strong bows, adorned with serpents' skins. Their strings are made of supple and tender shoots of trees, that will not break, and their arrows of hard and light wood. These people, who kill birds flying, can shoot, it is said, with such surprising swiftness, that they can discharge 28 arrows from the bow before the first falls to the ground. With equal dexterity they manage their battle-axes, one end of which is sharpened, and cuts like a wedge, and the other flattened, like a mallet, with a handle set between, about half the length of the iron, rounded at the end like an apple, and covered with the skin of a serpent. The current money of this country is the zimbis or shell which is fished for, and passes among several African nations. They worship the sun, as their chief deity, whom they represent by the figure of a man, and the moon by that of a woman. They have also an infinite number of inferior deities, each individual having a particular idol, whom he addresses on certain occasions.

Monemugi has Zanquebar on the east; Monomotapa on the south; Anzico on the west; and Abyssinia on the north. Its extent cannot be ascertained. That part of the country which is known abounds with gold, silver, copper mines, and elephants. The natives clothe themselves in silks and cottons, which they buy of strangers, and wear collars of transparent amber-beads, brought them from Cambaya, which beads serve also instead of money; gold and silver being too common, and of little value among them.

Their monarch always endeavours to be at peace with the princes round about him, and to keep an open trade with Quitoa, Melinda, and Mombaza on the east, and with Congo on the west, from all which places the black merchants resort thither for gold. The Portuguese merchants report that at the east side of Monemugi there is a great lake, full of small islands, abounding with all sorts of fowl and cattle, and inhabited by negroes. They relate also that on the main land eastward they heard sometimes the ringing of bells, and that one could observe buildings very much like churches, and that from these parts

men of a brown and tawny complexion, who traded with those islanders and with the people of Monemugi.

This country of Monemugi affords also abundance of palm-wine and oil, and such great plenty that above half of it is lost, the blacks not being able to consume it. The air is generally very unwholesome and excessively hot, which is the reason why no Christians undertake to travel in this empire. De Lisle gives the division of this country as follows: the Maracates, the Messeguaries, the kingdom of the Buengas, the kingdom of Masti, and that of Maravi. But we are not acquainted with any particulars relating to these nations or kingdoms.

Monomotapa is bounded by Sofala on the east; Caffraria on the west and south; and Monemugi on the north. The air of this country is very temperate, and the land fertile in pastures and all the necessaries of life, being watered by several rivers. The inhabitants are rich in black cattle, which they value more than gold; they have a vast number of elephants, as appears from the quantity of ivory that is exported from hence. There are many gold-mines, and the rivers that run through their veins carry a great deal of gold-dust along with them. The inhabitants are lovers of war, which is the employment followed by all those who do not apply themselves to commerce.

Madagascar, the largest of the African islands, is situated between 43° and 51° of east longitude, and between 12° and 26° of south latitude, extending in length near 1000 miles from north-north-east to south-south-west, and 300 in breadth where broadest. It was discovered in 1506 by Laurence Almeyda; but the Persians and the Arabians were acquainted with it from time immemorial, under the name of Serandib. Alphonzo Albuquerque ordered Ruy Peroira de Conthinto to visit the interior parts, and that general intrusted Tristan d'Acunha with the survey. The Portuguese called it the island of St. Laurence; the French, who visited it in the reign of Henry IV. named it Isle Dauphine; its proper name is Madegasse; it is now, however, by common consent, called Madagascar.

This large island, according to many learned geographers, is the Cernè of Pliny and the Menuthiasde of Ptolemy. It is every where watered by large rivers, streams, and rivulets, which have their source at the foot of that long chain of mountains, which runs through the whole extent of the island from east to west. The two highest promontories are called Vivagora and Botistmene.

These mountains, according to the Abbé Rochon, inclose within their bosoms a variety of precious minerals and useful fossils. The traveller (who for the first time rambles over savage and mountainous countries, intersected with valleys and with hills, where nature, left to herself, brings forth the most singular and the most varied productions) is involuntarily surprised and terrified at the sight of precipices, the summits of which are crowned with monstrous trees, that seem coeval with the world. His astonishment is redoubled at the noise of those grand cascades, the approach to which is generally inaccessible. But to these views so sublimely picturesque, rural scenes soon succeed; little hills, gentle rising grounds, and plains, the vegetation of which is never repressed by the intemperance or the vicissitudes of the seasons. The eye contemplates with pleasure those vast savannas, which nourish numberless herds of bullocks or of sheep. You behold a flourishing

agriculture, produced almost solely by the fertilising womb of nature. The fortunate inhabitants of Madagascar do not bedew the earth with their sweat, they scarce stir the ground with a rake, and even that slight preparation is sufficient; they scrape little holes, at a small distance from each other, into which they scatter a few grains of rice, and cover them with their feet; and so great is the fertility of the soil, that the lands sown in this careless manner produce an hundred fold.

The forests present a prodigious variety of the most useful and the most beautiful trees; ebony-wood for dyeing, bamboos of an enormous thickness, and palm-trees of every kind; the timber employed in ship-building is no less common than those kinds so much prized by the cabinet-makers. We are told, by the French governor Flacourt, in his history of this island, that in the year 1650 he sent 52,300 weight of aloes, of an excellent quality. All of these various trees and shrubs are surrounded by an infinite number of parisitical plants; mushrooms, of an infinite diversity of kinds and colours, are to be met with every where in the woods, and the inhabitants know well how to distinguish those which are prejudicial to the health: they collect large quantities of useful gums and resins, and out of the milky sap of a tree, denominated by them finguiore, the inhabitants, by means of coagulation, make that singular substance, known to the naturalists by the name of gum elastic.

Besides the aromatic and medicinal herbs, which abound in the forests, the island produces flax and hemp, of a length and strength which surpass any in Europe. Sugar-canes, wax, honey of different kinds, tobacco, indigo, white pepper, gum, lac, ambergris, silk, and cotton, would long since have been objects of commerce, which Madagascar would have yielded in profusion, if the Europeans, in visiting the island, had furnished the inhabitants with the necessary information of preparing and improving these several productions.

The sugar-canes (as we are informed by another traveller) are much larger and finer than any in the West Indies, being as thick as a man's wrist, and so full of juice, that a foot of them will weigh two pounds. When the natives travel, they carry a sugar-cane along with them, which will support them for two or three days. Here are also plenty of tamirinds, and such quantities of limes and oranges that very large casks may be filled with their juices at a trifling expence, as they may be purchased for iron-pots, muskets, powder, ball, &c. During the short time that admiral Watson's squadron staid here, in 1754, Mr. Ives preserved about half a hogshead full of those juices, which proved afterwards of the greatest service to the ships' crews. It must be observed, however, that no good water is to be had at St. Augustine, on the south-west part of the island, where ships usually touch, unless boats are sent for it, four or five miles up the river, and instead of filling their casks at low water (as is the case in most other rivers), they must begin to fill at about a quarter's flood: the reason assigned for this is that the river has a communication with the sea at other places besides this of St. Augustine's bay; and it has been found by experience, that the sea-water brought into the river by the flood-tide is not discharged till a quarter's flood of the next tide; in St. Augustine's bay, and for three miles up the river, the water is always very brackish, if not quite salt.

The abundance and variety of provisions of every kind, which a fine climate and fertile

soil can produce, are on no part of the globe, according to M. Rochon, superior to those of Madagascar; game, wild-fowl, poultry, fish, cattle, and fruits are alike plentiful: the oxen, Mr. Ives also informs us, are large and fat, and have each a protuberance of fat between the shoulders, weighing about 20 pounds; their flesh is greatly esteemed by all the European nations trading to India, and ships are sent to Madagascar on purpose to kill and salt them on the island; the protuberance of fat above mentioned is particularly esteemed after it has lain some time in salt; but our author says that he could not join in the encomiums either on this piece or the beef in general, as the herbage on which the creatures feed gives their flesh a particular taste, which to him was very disagreeable. The sheep differ little from the goats, being equally hairy, only that their heads are somewhat larger, their necks resemble that of a calf, and their tails weigh at least ten pounds. Vast quantities of locusts rise here from the low lands in thick clouds, extending sometimes to an incredible length and breadth; the natives eat these insects, and even prefer them to their finest fish; their method of dressing them is to strip off their legs and wings, and fry them in oil.

The inhabitants (termed Melagaches or Medecasses), M. Rochon informs us, are in person above the middle size of Europeans; the colour of the skin is different in different tribes; among some it is of a deep black, among others tawney, some of the natives are of a copper colour, but the complexion of by far the greatest number is olive. All those who are black have woolly hair, like the negroes of the coast of Africa; those, on the other hand, who resemble Indians and Mulattoes, have hair equally straight with that of the Europeans, the nose is not broad and flat, the forehead is large and open, in short, all the features are regular and agreeable: their physiognomy displays the appearance of frankness and of satisfaction, they are desirous only of learning such things as may administer to their necessities; that species of knowledge which demands reflection is indifferent to them; sober, agile, active, they spend the greatest part of their time either in sleep or in amusement.

Mr. Ives says, "that they are a civil and good-natured people, but easily provoked, and apt to show their resentment on the least provocation, especially when they think themselves injured or slighted. Another characteristic of them is the very high notions of dignity they entertain of their king, which is carried to such a height that they are never more sensibly hurt than when they imagine he is treated with incivility or disrespect. This mighty monarch resides in a town built with mud, about 12 miles up the country from St. Augustine's bay. On the east side of the bay as you enter, there resided one Prince William, a relation and tributary to the king, but who, in most cases, acted as an independant prince, and always used his utmost endeavours with the officers to cause them to buy their provisions from him, and not from the king or his subjects. In this prince's territories, not far from the sea, are the remains of a fort, built by Avery the pirate."

"All the women of Madagascar, excepting the very poorest sort, wear a covering over their breasts and shoulders, ornamented with glass beads, and none go without a cloth about their loins; they commonly walk with a long slender rod or stick. The men are allowed to marry as many women as they can support."

"I took (says he) some pains to learn their religious tenets; and find that they worship one Universal Father, whom, when they speak in English, they call God, and in

whom they conceive all kinds of perfection to reside. The sun they look upon as a glorious body, and, I believe, as a spiritual being, created and dependent; they frequently look up to it with wonder, if not with praise and adoration: they make their supplication to the One Almighty, and offer sacrifices to him in their distresses. I had the curiosity to attend a sacrifice at the hut of John Anderson, whose father had for a long time been afflicted with sickness. About sun-set an ox was brought into the yard, and the son, who officiated as priest, slew it. An altar was reared nigh, and the post of it was sprinkled with the blood of the victim: the head, after its being severed from the body, was placed, with the horns, at the foot of the altar, the caul was burned on the fire, and most of the pluck and entrails boiled in a pot. The sick man, who was brought to the door, and placed on the ground, so as to face the sacrifice, prayed often, and seemingly with great fervency. His eyes were fixed attentively towards the heavens, and his hands held up in a supplicating posture: the ceremony ended with the son's cutting up the ox into small pieces, the greatest part of which he distributed among the poor slaves belonging to his father and himself, reserving some of the best pieces for his own use. Upon the whole, I saw so many circumstances in this Madagascarian sacrifice, so exactly resembling those described in the Old Testament, as offered up by the Jews, that I could not turn my thoughts back to the original without being sensibly struck by the exactness of the copy."

The French have several times attempted to make settlements in Madagascar, but without success.

They would in a similar manner have abandoned Mauritius, an island about 400 miles to the east of Madagascar, if, in 1735, the famous M. de la Bourdonnais had not been sent thither, with the title of governor general of the French islands.

He found this island in the worst state possible, thinly inhabited, by a lazy set of people, who equally hated industry and peace, and who were continually flattering this man to his face, and belying him wherever and as far as they durst. He gave himself no trouble about this, having once found the means to make himself obeyed, he saw the vast importance of the island, he conceived that it might be settled to great advantage, and without so much as expecting the thanks of those for whom he laboured, he began to execute this great design. His first step was to bring over black boys from Madagascar, whom he carefully trained up in good principles, and in continual exercise, by which he rendered them so good soldiers that he very quickly obliged the Marones or wild negroes either to submit or quit the island; he taught the planters to cultivate their lands to advantage, he, by an aqueduct, brought fresh water to the sea-side; and whereas they had not so much as a boat at his coming thither, he made a very fine dock, where he not only built sloops and large vessels, but even a ship of the burden of 500 ton. However incredible it may seem, yet it is certainly fact, that in the space of five years he converted this country into a paradise, that had been a mere wilderness for 5000, and this in spite of the inhabitants and of the company, who being originally prejudiced by them, behaved ill to him at his return. He soon made the cardinal de Fleury, however, sensible of the true state of things, and compelled the company to acknowledge, though they did not reward his services. He afterwards returned into the Indies, and perfected the work he had begun, and to him it is owing that the isle of France was rendered one of the finest and most important spots upon the globe. Here no coffee is raised, but by the indefatigable industry

of M. de la Bourdonnais; sugar, indigo, pepper, and cotton (which are not at Bourbon) came to be cultivated with success. Since the departure of the most excellent governor, the plantations have been neglected, and are fallen off; but if a proper spirit of activity was raised among the inhabitants, they might soon be made to resume their flourishing appearance. Mines of iron have been discovered in the mountains, near the great plain, in the north-east part of the island; and these mountains affording in great abundance the necessary fuel, forges have been erected; but the iron produced is of a very inferior quality, it being brittle, and only fit for making cannon-balls and bomb-shells. Black cattle, sheep, and goats are preserved with difficulty; the first generally die before they have been a year in the island, and this occasions frequent importations of them from Madagascar and other parts. Common domestic poultry breed in great plenty, and with fish and turtle furnish a great part of the food of the European inhabitants.

The isle of Bourbon lies also to the east of Madagascar; it has a hot climate, but a very salubrious air, and a very fertile soil, producing abundance of Turkey corn and rice. It has also fruits of various kinds, and a plenty of most sorts of cattle. In 1763 it had about 20,000 inhabitants, and was of considerable benefit to the French East India company.

The Comora islands lie between the north end of the island of Madagascar and the coast of Zanquebar, from 10° to 15° of south latitude. Authors differ greatly with regard to their number, some speaking of three, others of five, and some of eight of these islands. They all abound in horned cattle, sheep, hogs, and a variety of fruits common in warm countries; they are said also to produce a kind of rice, which turns of a violet colour when boiled. The most remarkable of them, and which the Europeans are best acquainted with, is the island of Johanna.

SOUTH AMERICA, from the best AUTHORITIES.
CARIBBEAN SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
SOUTHERN OCEAN
TERRA FIRMA
NEW GRENADA
COMANA
GUIANA
AMAZONIA
BRASIL
PARAGUAY
PATAGONIA
Equinoctial Line
Tropic of Capricorn
Meridian of London
West Longitude from London.

VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK XII.

South America.

CHAPTER I.

Surinam.

SOUTH AMERICA is an extensive peninsula, connected with North America by the isthmus of Darien, and divided between Holland, France, Portugal, the native inhabitants, and Spain, in the following manner: to the Dutch belongs Surinam, to the French Cayenne, the Portuguese possess Brazil, the natives Amazonia and Patagonia, while the empire of the Spaniards extends over Paraguay, Chili, Peru, and Terra Firma. Of each of these countries we shall treat in their order.

The province of Surinam or Dutch Guiana is situated between 5° and 7° north latitude, having the mouth of the Oronoko and the Atlantic on the north; Cayenne on the east; Amazonia on the south; and Terra Firma on the west.

The Dutch claim the whole coast from the mouth of Oronoko to the river Marowyne, on which are situated their colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice, and Surinam: the latter begins with the river Saramacha and ends with the Marowyne, including a length of coast of 120 miles.

In the months of September, October, and November the climate is unhealthy, particularly for strangers: the common diseases are putrid and common fevers, the dry belly-ach, and the dropsy.

This province is finely intersected by rivers and creeks, and has an excellent soil, so that it is capable of producing an abundance of sugar, indigo, rice, tobacco, gums, dyes, and medicinal plants, but that it has been badly managed, and most of the plantations are mortgaged. The rivers abound with fish, some of which are good at certain seasons of the year; there is plenty of turtle. The woods abound with plenty of deer, hares, rabbits, a kind of buffalo, and two species of wild hogs, one of which, the peccary, is remarkable for having its navel on the back.

The woods are infested with several species of tygers, but with no other dangerous or ravenous animals. The rivers are rendered dangerous by alligators, from four to seven feet long; and a man was a short time since crushed between the jaws of a fish, but its name is not known. Scorpions and tarantulas are found here of a large size and great

venom, and other insects without number, some of them very dangerous and troublesome. The torporific eel, the touch of which, by means of the bare hand or any conductor, has the effect of a strong electrical shock. Serpents also, some of which are venomous, and others, as has been asserted by many credible persons, are from 25 to 50 feet long. In the woods are monkeys, the sloth, and parrots, in all their varieties, also some birds of beautiful plumage, among others the flamingo, but few or no singing birds.

Paramirabo, situated on Surinam river, four leagues from the sea, north latitude 6°, west longitude 55° from Greenwich, is the principal town in Surinam. It contains about 2000 whites, one half of whom are Jews, and 8000 slaves. The houses are principally of wood, some few have glass windows, but generally they have wooden shutters. The streets are spacious and straight, and planted on each side with orange or tamarind trees.

About 70 miles from the sea, on the same river, is a village of about 40 or 50 houses, inhabited by Jews; this village and the town above mentioned, with the intervening plantations, contain all the inhabitants in this colony, which amount to 2,300 whites and 43,000 slaves. The buildings on the plantations are many of them costly, convenient, and airy. The country round is thinly inhabited with the native Indians, a harmless friendly race of beings: they are in general short of stature, but remarkably well made, of a light copper colour, straight black hair, without beards, high cheek-bones, and broad shoulders. In their ears, noses, and hair, the women wear ornaments of silver, &c. Both men and women go naked. One nation or tribe of them tie the lower part of the legs of the female children, when young, with a cord bound very tight, for the breadth of six inches about the ancle, which is never afterwards taken off, but to put on a new one, by which means the flesh, which should otherwise grow on that part of the leg, increases the calf to a great size, and leaves the bone below nearly bare: this, though it must render them very weak, is reckoned a great beauty by them. The language of the Indians appears to be very soft. They are mortal enemies to every kind of labour, but nevertheless manufacture a few articles, such as very fine cotton hammocks, earthern water-pots, baskets, a red or yellow dye, called roucau, and some other trifles, all which they exchange for such articles as they stand in need of.

They paint themselves red, and some are curiously figured with black. Their food consists chiefly of fish, and crabs, and cassava, of which they plant great quantities, and this is almost the only produce they attend to. They cannot be said to be absolutely wandering tribes, but their huts being merely a few cross sticks covered with branches, so as to defend them from the rain and sun, they frequently quit their habitations, if they see occasion, and establish them elsewhere. They do not shun the whites, and have been serviceable against the runaway negroes.

This colony was not immediately subject to the states general, but under a company in Holland, called the directors of Surinam, who appointed the governor and all the officers, both civil and military. It was first possessed by the French, as early as the year 1630 or 40, and was abandoned by them on account of its unhealthy climate. In the year 1650 it was taken by some Englishmen, and in 1662 a charter grant was made of it by Charles II. About this time it was considerably augmented by the settlement of a number of Jews, who had been driven out of Cayenne and the Brazils, whose descendants, with other Jews, compose at present one half of the white inhabitants of the colony, and

are allowed great privileges. In 1667 it was taken by the Dutch, and the English having got possession about the same time of the then Dutch colony of New York, each party retained its conquest; the English planters most of them retired to Jamaica, leaving their slaves behind them, whose language is still English, but so corrupted as not to be understood at first by an Englishman.

CHAPTER II.

CAYENNE.

CAYENNE is bounded north and east by the Atlantic ocean; south by the Amazonia; and west by Guiana or Surinam. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and nearly 300 miles within land, lying between the equator and the 5° of north latitude.

The land along the coast is low, and very subject to inundations during the rainy seasons, from the multitudes of rivers which rush down from the mountains with great impetuosity. Here the atmosphere is very hot, moist, and unwholesome, especially where the woods are not cleared away; but on the higher parts, where the trees are cut down, and the ground laid out in plantations, the air is more healthy, and the heat greatly mitigated by the sea breezes. The soil in many parts is very fertile, producing sugar, tobacco, Indian corn, fruits, and other necessaries of life.

In 1635 the French took possession of an island upon this coast, called also Cayenne. They were influenced in this measure by the expectation of discoveing a country called Deldorado, which was supposed to contain greater riches in gold and precious stones than ever Cortes and Pizarro had found in Mexico and Peru; but as the settlers have met with a succession of misfortunes, it has never risen to any great degree of opulence.

The island of Cayenne is about 16 leagues in circumference, and is only parted from the continent by two rivers. By a particular formation, uncommon in islands, the land is highest near the water side, and low in the middle. Hence the land is so full of morasses that all the communication of it between the different parts of it is impossible, without taking a great circuit. There are some small tracts of an excellent soil, to be found here and there, but the generality is dry, sandy, and soon exhausted. The only town in the colony is defended by a covert way, a large ditch, a very good mud rampart, and five bastions. In the middle of the town is a pretty considerable eminence, of which a redoubt has been made, that is called the fort. The entrance into the harbour is through a narrow channel, and ships can only get in at high water, owing to the rocks and reefs that are scattered about this pass.

The first produce of Cayenne was the arnotto, from the produce of which the colonists proceeded to that of cotton, indigo, and lastly sugar. It was the first of all the French colonies that attempted to cultivate coffee: the coffee-tree was brought from Surinam in 1721, by some deserters from Cayenne, who purchased their pardon by so doing. Ten or twelve years after they planted the cocoa; we have very little account of the produce with respect to quantity, but as far back as the year 1752 there were exported from Cayenne 260,541 pounds of arnotto, 80,363 pounds of sugar, 17,919 pounds of cotton, 26,881 pounds of coffee, 91,916 pounds of cocoa, 618 trees for timber, and 104 planks.

CHAPTER III.

Brazil.

THIS territory is situated between the equator and 35° south latitude, and 60° west longitude. It is about 1,560 miles in length and 1000 in breadth, but measuring along the coast it is 2000 miles long, and is bordered with mountains, that open from time to time, and form good harbours, where vessels may lie in safety.

It is bounded by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic ocean on the north; and by the same ocean on the east; on the south by the river Plata; on the west by morasses, lakes, torrents, rivers, and mountains, which separate it from Amazonia and the Spanish possessions. On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions on their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbaro, and St. Catharine's.

It was accidentally discovered by the Portuguese in 1500. Emanuel, king of Portugal, had equipped a squadron of 13 sail, carrying 1200 soldiers and sailors, destined for the East Indies, under the conduct of Peter Alvarez Cabral This admiral, quitting Lisbon on the 9th of March, 1500, struck out to sea, to avoid the coast of Guinea, and steered his course southward, that he might the more easily turn the Cape of Good Hope. On the 24th of April he got sight of the continent of South of America, which he judged to be a large island at some distance from the coast of Africa. Coasting along for some time, he ventured to send a boat on shore, and was astonished to observe the inhabitants entirely different from the Africans in features, hair, and complexion. It was found, however, impracticable to seize upon any of the Indians, who retired with great celerity to the mountains on the approach of the Portuguese; yet as the sailors had discovered a good harbour, the admiral thought proper to come to an anchor, and called the bay Puerto Seguro. Next day he sent another boat on shore, and had the good fortune to lay hold on two of the natives, whom he clothed and treated kindly, and dismissed, to make a proper report to their countrymen. The stratagem had the desired effect: the Indians having heard the relation of the prisoners, immediately crowded to the shore, singing, dancing, and sounding horns of different kinds; which induced Cabral to land, and take solemn possession, in the name of his Portuguese majesty.

As soon as the court of Lisbon had ordered a survey to be taken of the harbours, bays, rivers, and coasts of Brazil, and was convinced that the country afforded neither gold nor silver, they held it in such contempt that they sent thither none but condemned criminals and abandoned women. Two ships were sent every year from Portugal, to carry the refuse of the kingdom to this new world, and to bring home parrots, and woods for the dyers and cabinet-makers. Ginger was afterwards added, but soon after prohibited, lest it should interfere with the sale of the same article from India.

In 1548 the Jews, many of whom had taken refuge in Portugal, beginning to be persecuted by the inquisition, were stript of their possessions and banished to Brazil. Here, however, they were not entirely forsaken; many of them found kind relations and faithful

friends, others, who were known to be men of probity and understanding, obtained money in advance from merchants of different nations, with whom they had formerly had transactions. By the assistance of some enterprising men, they were enabled to cultivate sugar-canes, which they first procured from the island of Madeira. Sugar, which till then had been used only in medicine, became an article of luxury; princes and great men were all eager to procure themselves this species of indulgence. This circumstance proved favourable to Brazil, and enabled it to extend its sugar plantations. The court of Lisbon, notwithstanding its prejudices, began to be sensible that a colony might be beneficial to the mother-country, without producing gold or silver; and this settlement, which had been wholly left to the capricious management of the colonists, was now thought to deserve some end of attention; and, accordingly, Thomas de Souza was sent thither in 1549, to regulate and superintend it.

This able governor began by reducing these men, who had always lived in a state of anarchy, into proper subordination, and bringing their scattered plantations closer together; after which he applied himself to acquire some information respecting the natives, with whom he knew he must be necessarily engaged, either in traffic or war. This it was no easy matter to accomplish. Brazil was full of small nations, some of which inhabited the forests, and others lived in the plains and along the rivers; some had settled habitations, but the greater number of them led a roving life, and most of them had no intercourse with each other. It is not to be supposed that such people would be at all disposed to submit to the yoke which the Portuguese wanted to put upon them. At first they only declined all intercourse with these strangers; but finding themselves pursued, in order to be made slaves, and to be employed in the labour of the field, they took the resolution to murder and devour all the Europeans they could seize upon. The friends and relations of the savages that were taken prisoners also ventured to make frequent attempts to rescue them, and were sometimes successful, so that the Portuguese were forced to attend to the double employments of labour and war.

Souza, by building San Salvador, gave a centre to the colony; but the honour of settling, extending, and making it really useful to the mother-country was reserved for the Jesuits who attended him. These men, who, for their arts of insinuation and address, have been equalled by none, dispersed themselves among the Indians. When any of the missionaries were murdered, they were immediately replaced by others, and seeming to be inspired only with sentiments of peace and charity, the Indians, in process of time, grew not only familiar but passionately fond of them. As the missionaries were too few in number to transact all the business themselves, they frequently deputed some of the most intelligent Indians in their stead. These men having distributed hatchets, knives, and looking-glasses among the savages they met with, represented the Portuguese as a harmless, humane, and good sort of people.

The prosperity of the colony of Brazil, which was visible to all Europe, excited the envy of the French, Spaniards, and Dutch successively; the latter indeed bid fairest for the conquest of the whole; but after the revolution, which placed the duke of Braganza on the throne of Portugal, the Portuguese expelled the Dutch, and have ever since retained the possession of the country.

Brazil is divided into the following provinces or captainships, as they are called, viz. Para, Managnano, Siara, Rio Grande, Pareiba, Tamarica, Fernambucca, Seregippe, Bahia, Porto Seguro, Esperito, Santo, Rio de Janeiro, St. Vincent, and Del Rey.

The harbours of Brazil are Panambuco, All Saints, Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador; and with respect to rivers, there are a great number of noble streams, which unite with the rivers Amazon and Plata, besides others which fall into the Atlantic ocean.

The climate of Brazil has been described by two eminent naturalists, Piso and Margrave, who observed it with a philosophical accuracy, to be temperate and mild, when compared with that of Africa; they ascribe this chiefly to the refreshing wind which blows continually from the sea. The air is not only cool but chilly through the night, so that the natives kindle a fire every evening in their huts. As the rivers in this country annually overflow their banks, and leave a sort of slime upon the lands, the soil here must be in many places amazingly rich, and this corresponds with the best information upon the subject. The vegetable productions are Indian corn, sugar-canes, tobacco, indigo, hides ipecacuana, balsam, Brazil-wood, which is of a red colour, hard, and dry, and is chiefly used in dyeing, but not the red of the best kind. Here is also the yellow fustic, of use in dyeing yellow, and a beautiful piece of speckled wood, made use of in cabinet-work. Here are five different sorts of palm-trees, some curious ebony, and a great variety of cotton-trees. This country abounds in horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides only, 20,000 being sent annually into Europe. There are also a plenty of deer, hares, and other game. Amongst the wild beasts found here are tygers, porcupines, janonocras, and a fierce animal, somewhat like a greyhound; monkeys, sloths, and the topirassou, a creature between a bull and an ass, but without horns, and entirely harmless; the flesh is very good, and has the flavour of beef. There is a numberless variety of fowl, wild and tame, in this country; among these are turkeys, fine white hens, and ducks. The remarkable birds are the humming-bird, the lankina, sometimes called the unicorn bird, for its having a horn, two or three inches long, growing out of its forehead, the guira, famous for often changing its colour, being first black, then ash-coloured, next white, afterwards scarlet, and last of all crimson, which colours grow richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. Among the abundance of fish with which the sea, lakes, and rivers of this country are stored, is the globe-fish, so called from its form, which is so beset with spines, like a hedgehog, that it bids defiance to all fish of prey. But the most remarkable creature is the sea-bladder, so called because it resembles one, and swims on the surface of the waves; the inside is filled with air, except a small quantity of water that serves to poise it. The skin is very thin and transparent, and, like a bubble raised in the water, reflects all the colours of the sky. Brazil breeds a great variety of serpents and venomous creatures, among which are the Indian salamander, a four legged insect, the sting of which is mortal; the ibivaboca, a species of serpent, about seven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whose poison is instantaneously fatal; the rattle-snake, which there attains an enormous size; the liboyd, or roe-buck snake, which, authors inform us, are capable of swallowing a roe-buck whole with its horns, being between 20 and 30 feet in length, and two yards in circumference. Besides these there are many other insects and serpents, of a dangerous and venomous nature.

The gold and diamond mines are but a recent discovery; they were first opened in the year 1681, and have since yielded above 5,000,000*l.* sterling annually; of which sum a fifth belongs to the crown. So plentiful are diamonds in this country that the court of Portugal has found it necessary to restrain their importation, to prevent too great a diminution of their value.

St. Salvador is the capital of Brazil. This city has a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour, is built on a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake, forming a crescent, on the other. The situation makes it, in a manner, impregnable by nature; and the Portuguese have, besides, added to it very strong fortifications; it is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent in all Brazil.

The trade of Brazil is very great, and increases every year. The Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America, they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, from whence they import as many as 40,000 negroes annually.

The excessive confluence of people to the Brazil colonies, as well from other countries as from Portugal, not only enlarges the imports of gold, diamonds, sugar, tobacco, hides, drugs, and medicines, but is of still greater importance as a drain for European commodities and manufactures.

The native Brazilians are about the size of the Europeans, but not so stout: they are subject to fewer distempers, and are long lived: they wear no clothing; the women wear their hair extremely long, the men cut theirs short; the women wear bracelets of bones, of a beautiful white, the men necklaces of the same; the women paint their faces, and the men their bodies. The food of the Brazilians is very simple; they live upon shell-fish by the sea-side, along the rivers by fishing, and in the forests by hunting; and when these fail, they live upon cassava and other roots. They are extremely fond of dancing and other amusements, and these amusements are not interrupted by the worship of a Supreme Being; for it is said they know of none, nor is their tranquillity disturbed by the dread of a future state, of which they have no idea. They have, however, their magicians, who, by strange contortions, so far work upon the credulity of the people as to throw them into violent convulsions. If the impostures of these magicians are detected, they are immediately put to death, which serves, in some measure, to check the spirit of deceit. Every Brazilian takes as many wives as he chooses, and puts them away when he gets tired of them. When the women lie in, they keep their bed but a day or two; then the mother, hanging the child to her neck in a cotton scarf, returns to her usual occupation without any kind of inconvenience. Travellers are received with distinguished marks of civility by the native Brazilians; wherever they go they are surrounded with women, who wash their feet, and welcome them with the most obliging expressions. But it would be an unpardonable affront if they should leave the family where they were first entertained, in hopes of better accommodation in another. Some of these virtues, however, were more applicable to these natives before they were corrupted by an intercourse with the Europeans.

CHAPTER IV.

NATIVE AMERICA——AMAZONIA AND PATAGONIA.

AMAZONIA, which has derived its name from the fable of its being inhabited by a nation of warlike women, is situated in the equator and 20° south latitude; its length is 1400 miles, and its breadth 900 miles; it is bounded on the the north by Terra Firma and Guiana; on the east by Brazil; on the south by Paraguay; and on the west by Peru.

The air is cooler than could be expected, considering it is situated in the torrid zone; this is partly owing to the heavy rains, which occasion the rivers to overflow their banks one half of the year; and partly to the cloudiness of the weather, which obscures the sun great part of the time he is above the horizon. During the rainy season the country is subject to dreadful storms of thunder and lightning.

The soil is extremely fertile, producing cocoa-nuts, pine-apples, bananas, plantains, and a great variety of tropical fruits; cedar, red-wood, pak, ebony, logwood, and many other sorts of dyeing wood; together with tobacco, sugar-canes, cotton, potatoes, balsam, honey, &c. The woods abound with tygers, wild boars, buffaloes, deer, and game of various kinds. The rivers and lakes abound with fish. Here are also sea-cows and turtles; but the crocodiles and water-serpents render fishing a dangerous employment.

The river Amazon is the largest in the known world. This river, so famous for the length of its course, this great vassal of the sea, to which it brings the tribute it has received from so many of its own tributaries, seems to be produced by innumerable torrents, which rush down with amazing impetuosity from the eastern declivity of the Andes, and unite in a spacious plain to form this immense river. In its progress of 3300 miles, it receives the water of a prodigious number of rivers, some of which come from far, and are very broad and deep. It is interspersed with an infinite number of islands, which are too often overflowed to admit of culture; it falls into the Atlantic ocean under the equator, and is there 150 miles broad.

The natives of this country, like all the other Americans, are of a good stature, having handsome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They are said to have a taste for the imitative arts, and especially painting and sculpture, and make good mechanics Their cordage is made of the barks of trees, and their sails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoise shells or hard stones, their chissels, planes, and wimbles of the horns and teeth of wild beasts, and their canoes are trees hollowed; they spin and weave cotton cloth, build their houses with wood and clay, and thatch them with reeds; their arms in general are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fish skins. The several nations are governed by their chiefs or casiques, it being observable that the monarchial form of government has prevailed almost universally, both among antient and modern barbarians, doubtless on account of its superior advantages with respect to war and rapine, and as requiring a much less refined policy than the republican system, and therefore best adapted to the savage state; the regalia which distinguish the chiefs are a crown of

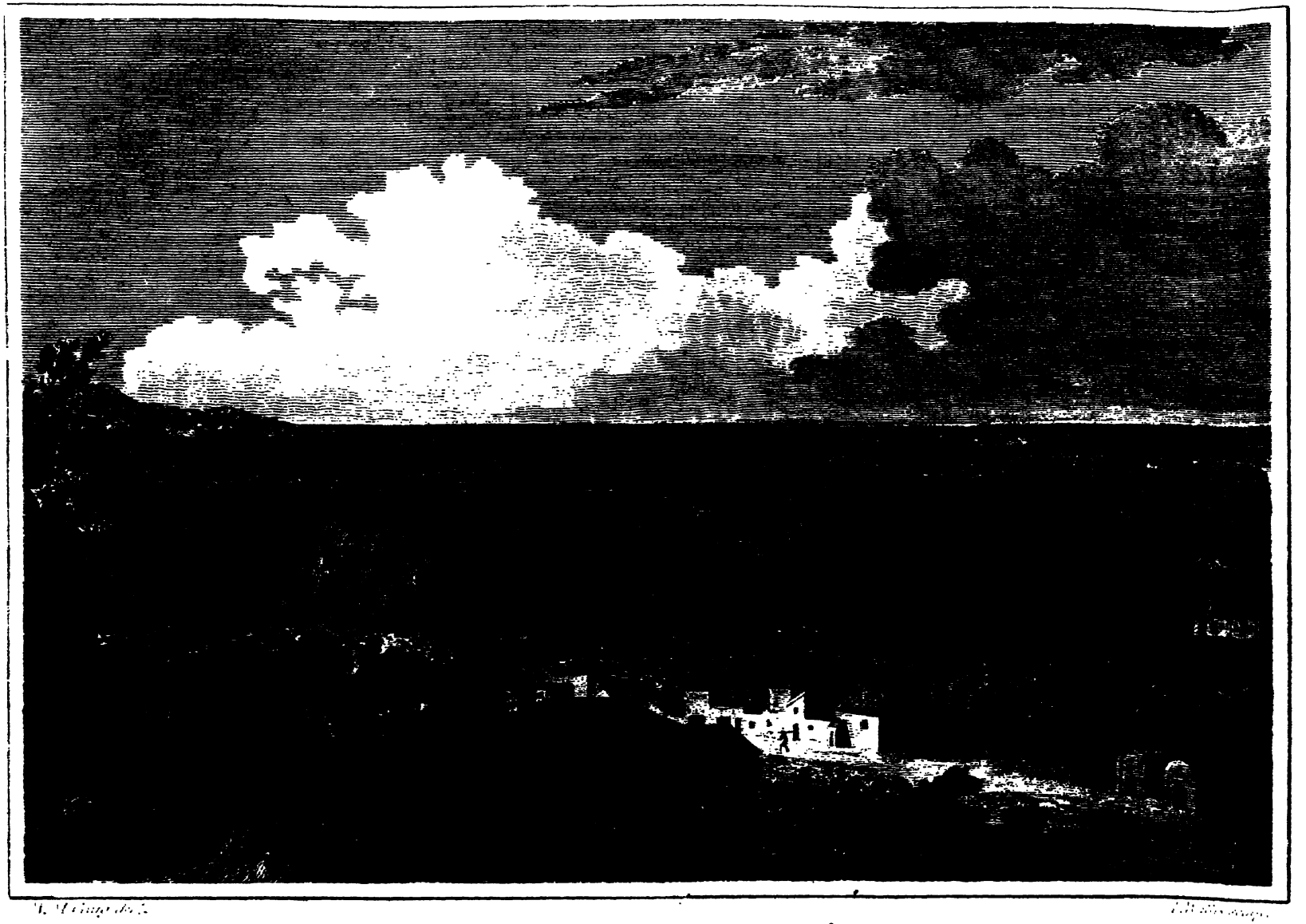
parrots' feathers, a chain of tigers' teeth or claws, which hangs round the waist, and a wooden sword, which, according to some authors, were intended for hieroglyphics.

Patagonia is situated between 35° and 54° south latitude; its length is 1100 miles, and its breadth 350; it is bounded north by Chili and Paraguay; east by the Atlantic ocean; south by the straits of Magellan; west by the Pacific ocean.

The climate is said to be much colder in this country than in the north, under the same parallels of latitude, which is imputed to the Andes, which pass through it, being covered with eternal snow; it is almost impossible to say what the soil would produce, as it is not at all cultivated by the natives. The northern parts are covered with wood, among which is an inexhaustible fund of large timber; but towards the south it is said that there is not a single tree large enough to be of use to mechanics; there are, however, good pastures, which feed incredible numbers of horned cattle and horses, first carried there by the Spaniards, and now increased in an amazing degree.

It is inhabited by a variety of Indian tribes, among which are the Patagons, from whom the country takes its name, the Pampas, and the Cossores; they all live upon fish and game, and what the earth produces spontaneously: their huts are thatched, and, notwithstanding the rigour of the climate, they wear no other clothes than a mantle made of seal-skin, or of the skin of some beast, and that they throw off when they are in action: they are exceedingly hardy, brave, and active, making use of their arms, which are bows and arrows, headed with flints, with amazing dexterity.

This country is said to be inhabited by a race of giants, or at least of men whose stature is larger than that of the other natives of South America.



VIEW of the CITY and HARBOUR of ACAPULCO, in SPANISH AMERICA.

CHAPTER V.

Spanish America———Paraguay, Chili, Peru, Terra Firma.

PARAGUAY is situated between 12° and 37° south latitude; and 50° and 75° west longitude; its length is 1500 miles, and its breadth 1000. It is bounded on the north by Amazonia; on the east by Brazil; on the south by Patagonia; and on the west by Chili and Peru.

It is divided into six provinces; viz. Paraguay, Parana, Guaira, Uragua, Tucuman, and Rio de la Plata.

This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, Paragua, Uuragua, and Parana, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate river, and which annually overflow the banks, and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime, that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued or planted by the Spaniards; there are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people: the principal province of which we have any knowledge is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above-mentioned rivers; this province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued plain, for several hundred miles, extremely fertile, and produces cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called paraguay, with a variety of fruits; and the prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that, it is said, the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcase being, in a manner, given into the bargain. A horse, some time ago, might be bought for a dollar, and the usual price of a bullock, chosen out of a herd of two or three hundred, was only four rialls. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

The Spaniards first discovered this country by sailing up the river La Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, 50 leagues within its mouth, where it is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South America, the capital of this country, and the only place of traffic to the south of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes hither, as to the other parts of South America; two, or, at most, three register ships make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe; their returns are very valuable, consisting of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar, and hides: those who have carried on a contraband trade to this city have found it more advantageous than any other; the benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose in such parts of Brazil as lie near this country.

Buenos Ayres is regularly built, its streets are wide, the houses are extremely low, and each of them is accommodated with a garden. The public and private buildings, which, 60 years ago, were all made of earth, are of more solid and commodious construction,

since the natives have learned the art of making brick and lime. The number of inhabitants is about 30,000. One side of the town is defended by a fortress, with the garrison of 6 or 700 men; the ships get to it by sailing up a river that wants depth, is full of islands, shoals, and rocks, and where storms are more frequent and more dreadful than on the ocean. It is necessary to anchor every night on the spot where they come, and on the most moderate days a pilot must go to sound the way for the ship; after having surmounted these difficulties, the ships are obliged, at the distance of three leagues from the town, to put their goods on board some light vessel, and to go to refit, and to wait for their cargoes at Incunado de Barragan, situated seven or eight leagues below.

Paraguay sends annually into the kingdom of Peru as many as 1500 or 2000 mules: they travel over dreary deserts, for the distance of 8 or 900 leagues.

About the middle of the 17th century, the Jesuits represented to the court of Spain, that the want of success in their mission was owing to the scandal, which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour caused in the Indians; they insinuated, that, were it not for those obstacles, the empire of the gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his Catholic majesty's obedience, without expence and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out, and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without licences from the fathers; they, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock, and to send a certain number to the king's works, whenever they shall be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms these Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign: they began by gathering together about 50 wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle, and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure which amazed the world, and added much to their power, at the same time that it occasioned much envy against their society. For, when they had made the beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most savage nations, fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese: they prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion, and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed, under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with precision all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of men. The Jesuits left nothing undone that could confirm their subjection, or that could increase their number; and, it is said, that above 340,000 families lived in obedience, and expressed an awe, bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint; that the Indians were instructed in the military art, and could raise 60,000 men well armed; that they lived in towns, were regularly clad, laboured in agriculture, exercised manufactures, some even aspired to the elegant arts, and that nothing could equal their submission to authority, except their contentment under it.

In the year 1757, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal, in exchange for St. Sacrament, to make the Uragua the boundary of their possessions, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. We were informed by the Spanish Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms, but, notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops who were sent to quell them; and, in 1767, the Jesuits were removed from America, by royal authority, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

Chili is situated between 25° and 45° south latitude, and 65° and 85° west longitude; its length is 1260 miles, and its greatest breadth 580; it is bounded on the north by Peru; on the east by Paraguay or La Plata; on the south by Patagonia; and on the west by the Pacific ocean. It lies on both sides of the Andes; Chili Proper lies on the west, and Cuyo or Cutio on the east; the principal towns in the former are St. Jago and Baldivia, in the latter St. John de Frontiera.

The Spaniards, after overrunning Peru, made various attempts, in the middle of the 16th century, to conquer this country; the Chilesians, however, continued the war for 50 years, and at last obliged them to abandon all thoughts of extending their conquests, and reduced them to cover their frontiers, by erecting forts at proper distances.

The Spanish colonies in Chili are dispersed on the borders of the South sea; they are parted from Peru by a desert 80 leagues in breadth, and bounded on the south by the island of Chilo, at the extremity next the straits of Magellan: there are no settlements on the coast, except those of Baldivia, Conception island, Valparaiso, and Coquimbo or La Serena, which are all sea-ports. In the inland country is St. Jago, the capital of the colony. There is no culture nor habitation at any distance from these towns; the buildings in the whole province are low, made of unburnt brick, and mostly thatched; this practice is observed on account of the frequent earthquakes, and is properly adapted to the nature of the climate, as well as to the indolence of the inhabitants.

The climate of Chili is one of the most wholesome in the whole world; the vicinity of the Cordilleras gives it such a delightful temperature as could not otherwise be expected in that latitude. Though gold mines are found in it, their richness has been too much extolled, their produce never exceeds 218,750 pounds per annum. The soil is prodigiously fertile. All the European fruits have improved in that happy climate; the wine would be excellent, if nature were properly assisted by art, and the corn harvest is reckoned a bad one, when it does not yield a hundred fold. With all these advantages, Chili has no direct intercourse with Spain; their trade is confined to Peru, Paraguay, and the savages on their frontiers. With these last they exchange their less valuable commodities for oxen, horses, and their own children, whom they are ready to part with for the most trifling things. This province supplies Peru with great plenty of hides, dried fruit, copper, salt-meat, horses, hemp, lard, wheat, and gold; in exchange, it receives tobacco, sugar, cocoa, earthen-ware, woollen cloth, linen, hats made at Quito, and every article of luxury brought from Europe. The ships sent from Callao on this traffic were formerly bound to Conception bay, but now come to Valparaiso. The commerce between this province and Paraguay is carried on by land, though it is a journey of 300 leagues, 40 of

which lie through the snows and precipices of the Cordilleras; but if it was carried on by sea, they must either pass the straits of Magellan, or double cape Horn, which the Spaniards always avoid as much as possible: to Paraguay are sent some woollen stuffs, called Ponchos, which are used for cloaks; also wines, brandy, oil, and chiefly gold; in return, they receive wax, a kind of tallow fit to make soap, European goods, and negroes.

Peru was first discovered by the Spaniards in 1513, and was conquered by them, under the command of Almagro and Pizarro, within about 24 years, with circumstances of great treachery and cruelty. Its inhabitants were much more polished than any other Americans, and subject to a race of princes whom they denominated Incas, and considered as the descendants of the sun; they acknowledged one God, the creator of heaven and earth, but offered sacrifices to the sun, and paid some kind of veneration to the images of several animals and vegetables; their empire was divided into provinces, and governed by viceroys and other officers, in subordination to the Inca. They were not ignorant of astronomy, painting, or statuary, and were acquainted with the use of metals, but set no high value on gold and silver.

The empire of Peru, at the time it was subdued, extended along the South sea, from the river of Emeralds to Chili, and on the land side to Popayan, according to some geographers. It contained, within its extent, that famous chain of mountains, which rises in the Terra Magellanica, and is gradually lost in Mexico, in order to unite, as it should seem, the southern parts of America with the northern.

It is now divided into three grand divisions or audiences; Quito, Lima, or Los Reyes, and Los Charcos. As to its climate, mines, soil, and produce, they differ greatly in different parts of the country.

The extensive province of Quito is bounded on the north by Popayan, and includes a part of that government, also by Santa Fe de Bogota; on the south by the governments of Piura and Chachapoyas; on the east it extends over the whole government of Maynas and the river of the Amazons, to the meridian, which divides the Spanish from the Portuguese dominions; and on the west it is bounded by the South sea; extending, according to Antonio de Ulloa, 600 leagues in length, and about 200 in its greatest breadth; but this greatly exceeds the computation of all other geographers. He, however, observes, that it must be owned a great part of those vast dominions are either inhabited by nations of Indians, or have not hitherto been sufficiently peopled by the Spaniards, if indeed they have been thoroughly known; and that all the parts that can properly be said to be peopled, and actually subject to the Spanish government, are those intercepted by the two Cordilleras of the Andes, which, in comparison to the extent of the country, may be termed a street or lane, 15 leagues or sometimes more from east to west; to this may be added several detached governments, separated by the very extensive tracts inhabited by free Indians. The climate of Quito differs from all others in the same parallel, since even in the centre of the torrid zone, or although under the equinoctial, the heat is not only very tolerable, but even, in some places, the cold is painful; while others enjoy all the advantages of a perpetual spring, the fields being constantly covered with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the most lively colours. The mildness of the climate, from the extremes of heat and cold, and the constant equality of the day and night, render this

country, which, from its situation, might be thought to be parched by the constant heat of the sun, and scarcely inhabitable, both pleasant and fertile; for nature has here dispensed her blessings with so liberal a hand, that this country, in several respects, surpasses those of the temperate zones, where the vicissitudes of winter and summer, and the change from heat to cold, causes the extremes of both to be more sensibly felt. However, in different parts of the country, the air is very different; in one part are mountains of a stupendous height and magnitude, with their summits covered with snow; the plains are temperate, the valleys hot, and, according to the high or low situation of the country, are found in all variety of gradations in temperature, possible to be conceived, between the extremes of heat and cold.

Quito, the capital, in 0° 13′ south latitude, and 77° 60′ west longitude from Greenwich, is so happily situated that neither heat nor cold are troublesome, though both may be felt in its neighbourhood; and what renders this still more delightful is, that it is constant throughout the whole year, the difference between the seasons being scarce perceptible. Indeed, the mornings are cool, the remainder of the day warm, and the nights of an agreeable temperature.

The winds, which are pure and salubrious, blow, for the most part, from north to south, but never with any violence, though they sometimes shift their quarters, but without any regard to the season of the year. Such signal advantages resulting from the climate, soil, and aspect of this country, would be sufficient to render it the most enviable spot upon earth, as it is supposed to be the most elevated, if, whilst enjoying these delights, the inhabitants were not harassed by terror, and exposed to continual danger; for here tremendous tempests of thunder and lightning prevail, which are sufficient to appal the stoutest heart; whilst earthquakes frequently spread universal apprehensions, and sometimes bury cities in ruins.

The distinction of winter and summer consists in a very minute difference; the interval, and months of April, May, or June, is here called the winter season, the other months compose the summer. In the former season the rain chiefly prevails, and in the latter the inhabitants frequently enjoy whole days of fine weather; but whenever the rains are discontinued for above a fortnight, the inhabitants are in the utmost consternation, and public prayers are offered up for their return. On the other hand, when they continue a short intermission, the like fears prevail, and the church is again crowded with supplicants to obtain fine weather; for a long drought produces dangerous diseases, and a continual rain, without intervals of sun-shine, destroys the fruits of the earth. The city of Quito, however, enjoys one particular advantage, in being free from musquetoes and other troublesome insects, such as fleas and venemous reptiles, except the nigua or pique, which is a very small insect, shaped like a flea, but hardly visible to the sight.

The fertility of the soil here is incredible, for the fruits and beauties of the several seasons are visible at the same time; and the curious European observes, with a pleasing admiration, that while some herbs of the field are fading, others, of the same kind, are springing up; while some flowers lose their beauty, others blow, to continue the enamelled prospect: thus, when the fruits of the trees have attained their maturity, and the leaves begin to change their colour, fresh leaves, blossoms, and fruit are seen in their proper gradation, in size and ripeness on the same tree. The same incessant fertility is conspi-

cuous in corn, both reaping and sowing, being carried on at the same time; so that the declivities of the neighbouring hills exhibit all the beauties of the four seasons in one assemblage. Though all this is generally seen, yet there is a set time for the grand harvest; yet sometimes the most favourable season for sowing in one place is a month or two after that of another, though their distance does not exceed three or four leagues. Thus, in different spots, and sometimes in one and the same, sowing and reaping are performed throughout the whole year, the forwardness or retardment naturally arising from the different situations, such as mountains, rising grounds, plains, and valleys, and the temperature being different in each, the best times for performing the several operations of husbandry must also differ.

The chirimoya is considered as one of the most delicious fruits in the world. Its dimensions are various, being from one to five inches in diameter. Its figure is imperfectly round, flatted towards the stalk, where it forms a kind of navel; but all the other parts are nearly circular. It is covered with a thin soft shell, which adheres so closely to the pulp, as not to be separated from it without a knife. The outward coat is green, variegated with prominent veins, forming all over it a kind of net-work; the pulp is white, and contains a large quantity of juice, resembling honey, of a sweet taste, mixed with a gentle acid, of a most exquisite flavour; the seeds are formed in several parts of the pulp, and are somewhat flat; the tree is high and tufted, the stem large and round, but with some inequalities, full of elliptic leaves, terminating in a point; the blossom differs little from the colour of the leaves, which is a darkish green; and though far from being beautiful, is remarkable for its incomparable fragrance.

The granadilla in its shape resembles an hen's egg, but is larger; the outside of the shell is smooth, glossy, and of a faint carnation colour, and the inside white and soft; the shell contains a viscous liquid substance, full of very small and delicate grains, less hard than those of the pomegranate: this medullary substance is separated from the shell by a fine and transparent membrane. Its fruit has a delightful sweetness, blended with acidity, very cordial and refreshing, and so wholesome that there is no danger of eating to excess.

The frutilla or Peruvian strawberry is very different from that of Europe in size; for though they are here generally not above an inch in length, they are much larger in other parts of Peru; but their taste, though juicy, and not unpalatable, is not equal to those in Europe.

The country is observed to abound more in women than in men; which is the more remarkable, as those causes which induce men to leave their country, as travelling, commerce, and war, naturally bring over more men than women from Europe. But there are many families in which there are a number of daughters, without one son among them. The women enjoy a better state of health than the men, which may be owing, in some measure, to the climate, and more particularly to the early intemperance and voluptuousness of the other sex.

The Creoles are well made, of a proper stature, and of a lively and agreeable countenance. The Mestizoos are also in general well made, often taller than the ordinary size, very robust, and have an agreeable air. The Indians, both men and women, are commonly low of stature, though strong and well proportioned; but more natural defects are

to be found among them than in any of the rest. Some are remarkably short, some idiots, dumb, or blind. Their hair is generally thick and long, which they wear loose on their shoulders; but the Indians plait theirs behind with a ribbon, and cut that before, a little above the eyebrows, from one eye to the other. The greatest disgrace that can be offered to an Indian of either sex is to cut off their hair; for whatever corporeal punishments their masters think proper to inflict on them they bear with patience, but this affront they never forgive; and accordingly the government has interposed, and limited this punishment to the most enormous crimes. The colour of the hair is generally a deep black; it is lank, harsh, and as coarse as that of a horse. On the contrary, the male Mestizos, in order to distinguish themselves from the Indians, cut off their hair, but the females do not adopt that custom.

The Mestizos in general wear a blue cloth, manufactured in this country; but though they are the lowest class of Spaniards, they are very ambitious of distinguishing themselves as such, either by the colour or fashion of the clothes they wear.

The Mestizo women affect to dress in the same manner as the Spanish, though they cannot equal the ladies in the richness of their stuffs: the meaner sort wear no shoes, but, like the men of the same rank, go bare-footed.

The dress of the Indians consists of white cotton drawers, which hang down to the calf of the leg, where they are loose, and edged with a lace suitable to the stuff; the use of a shirt is supplied by a black cotton frock, made in the form of a sack, with three openings at the bottom, one in the middle for the head, and others at the corners for the arms; thus covering their naked bodies down to the knees; over this is a serge cloak, with a hole in the middle for putting the head through, and a hat made by the natives: this is their general dress, which they never lay aside, even while they sleep; and they have no additional clothing for their legs or feet. The Indians who have acquired some fortune, particularly the barbers and phlebotomists, distinguish themselves from their countrymen by the fineness of their drawers, and by wearing a shirt, which, though without sleeves, has a lace four or five fingers in breadth, fastened round like a ruff or band. They are fond of silver or gold buckles to their shoes, though they wear no stockings, and, instead of a mean serge cloak, wear one of fine cloth, which is often adorned with gold or silver lace.

There are two kinds of dresses worn by the Indian women, made in the same plain manner with those worn by the men; in general the whole consisting of a short petticoat, and a veil of American baize; but the dress of the lowest class of women is only a bag of the same make and stuff as that of the men, which they fasten on their shoulders with two large pins: it reaches down to the calf of the leg, and is fastened round the waist with a kind of girdle. Instead of a veil, they wear about the neck a piece of the same coarse stuff, dyed black; but their arms and legs are naked.

The people have dishes unknown in Europe; but are particularly fond of cheese, and have excellent butter in the neighbourhood of Quito. Sweetmeats are very much admired.

Rum is commonly drank here by persons of all ranks; but their favourite liquor is brandy. The disorders arising from the excessive use of spirituous liquors are generally seen among the Mestizos; and the lower class of women, both among the Creoles and Mestizos, are also extremely addicted to the same species of debauchery.

Another liquor, much used in this country, is mate; which is made of an herb, known in all these parts of America by the name of paraguay, as being the produce of that country. Some of it is put into a calabash, tipped with silver, called here mate, with some sugar and cold water. After it has continued there some time, the calabash is filled with cold water, and they drink the liquor through a pipe fixed in the calabash. It is also usual to squeeze into the liquor a small quantity of the juice of lemons or Seville oranges, mixed with some perfumes from odoriferous flowers. This is their usual drink in the morning, fasting; and many use it also at their evening regale: the manner of drinking it appears very indelicate; the whole company taking it successively through the same pipe, it being carried round several times, till the company are all satisfied: this, among the Creoles, is the highest enjoyment; so that, when they travel, they never fail to carry with them a sufficient quantity of it; and, till they have taken their dose of mate, they never eat.

The vice of gaming is here carried on to an extravagant height, to the ruin of many families; some losing their stocks in trade, others the very clothes from their backs, and afterwards those belonging to their wives, which they hazard, stimulated by the hope of recovering their own.

The common people, the Indians, and even the domestics are greatly addicted to stealing. The Mestizos, though arrant cowards, do not want audacity in this way; for though they will not venture to take any one in the street, it is a common thing to snatch off a person's hat, and immediately seek their safety in flight. This acquisition is sometimes of considerable value; the hats worn by persons of rank, and even by the wealthy citizens, when dressed, being of white beaver, worth 15 dollars, beside the hat-band of gold or silver lace fastened with a gold buckle set with diamonds or emeralds. Robberies on the highway are seldom heard of.

In Quito and all the towns and villages of its province different dialects are spoken; Spanish being no less common than the Inga, the language of the country. The Creoles use the latter as much as the former, but both are considerably adulterated by borrowed words and expressions. The first language generally spoken by children is the Inga; for the nurses being Indians, many of them do not understand a word of Spanish, and thus they afterward learn a jargon composed of both languages.

The sumptuous manner of performing the last offices for the dead demonstrates how far the power of habit is capable of prevailing over reason and prudence; for their ostentation is so great in this particular, that many families of credit are ruined by preposterously endeavouring to excel others; and the people here may be said to toil and scheme to lay up wealth, to enable their successors to lavish honours upon a body insensible of all pageantry.

The celebrated mine of Potosi was discovered by accident. An Indian, named Hualpa, in 1545, pursuing some deer, in order to climb certain steep rocks, laid hold of a bush, the roots of which loosened from the earth, and brought to view an ingot of silver; the Indian had recourse to it for his own use, and never failed to return to his treasure every time that his wants or his desires solicited him to it. The change that had happened in his fortune was remarked by one of his countrymen, and he discovered to him the secret: the two friends could not keep their counsel, and enjoy their good fortune; they quar-

relled; on which the indiscreet confident discovered the whole to his master Villaroel, a Spaniard, who was settled in the neighbourhood. Upon this the mine became known and was worked; and a great number of them were found in its vicinity, the principal of which are in the northern part of the mountain, and their direction is from north to south. The most intelligent people of Peru have observed that this is in general the direction of the richest mines.

The fame of what was passing at Potosi soon spread abroad, and there was quickly built, at the foot of the mountain, a town, consisting of 60,000 Indians and 10,000 Spaniards. The sterility of the soil did not permit its being immediately peopled. Corn, fruits, flocks, American stuffs, European luxuries, arrived there from every quarter. Industry, which every where follows the current of money, could not search for it with so much success as at its source. It evidently appeared that in 1738 these mines produced annually near 978,000*l.* without reckoning the silver which was not registered, and what had been carried off by fraud. From that time the produce has been so much diminished, that no more than one eighth part of the coin which was formerly struck is now made.

Terra Firma, otherwise called New Castile, or Castella del Oro, is bounded on the north by the North sea and part of the Atlantic ocean; by the same sea and Guiana on the east; by the country of the Amazons and Peru on the south; and by the Pacific ocean and Veragua on the west. It lies between 62° and 83° of west longitude; and between the equator and 12° of north latitude; being upwards of 1200 miles in length from east to west, and 800 in breadth from north to south. It had the name of Castella del Oro from the quantities of gold found in the districts of Uraba and other parts, and was first discovered by the celebrated Columbus, in his third voyage.

The climate is neither pleasant nor healthy; the inhabitants one part of the year being scorched by the most intense and burning heat, and the other almost drowned with perpetual floods of rain, pouring from the sky with such violence as if a general deluge was to ensue.

In so large a tract of country the soil must necessarily vary. Accordingly, in some parts it is a barren sand or drowned mangrove land, that will scarce produce any kind of grain; in others it yields Indian corn, balms, gums, and drugs, almost all manner of fruits, as well of Old as of New Spain, sugar, tobacco, Brazil wood, and several other kinds of dyeing woods; a variety of precious stones, particularly emeralds and sapphires; venison and other game. The plantations of cacao or chocolate nuts in the district of the Caraccas are esteemed the best in America. The mountains abound with tygers, and, according to some, with lions, and great numbers of other wild beasts. The rivers, seas, and lakes teem with fish, and also with alligators; and the bowels of the earth were once furnished with the richest treasures, now almost exhausted: the same may be said of the pearl-fisheries on the coast, which are far from being so profitable now as formerly.

Terra Firma is a very mountainous country. Terra Firma Proper in particular consists of prodigious high mountains and deep valleys, flooded more than half the year. The mountains in the province of Carthagena and St. Martha, according to Dampier, are the highest in the world, being seen at sea 200 miles off; from these run a chain of hills, of almost equal height, quite through South America, as far as the Straits of Magellan, called the Cordilleras des Andes. The province of Venezuola also, and district of the Caraccas, the

most northerly parts of South America, are almost a continued chain of hills, separated by small valleys, pointing upon the coast of the North sea. A chain of barren mountains, almost impassable, runs through the province of Popayan from north to south, some whereof are volcanoes; but towards the shores of the Pacific ocean it is a low country, flooded great part of the year.

The principal rivers of Terra Firma are the Darien, Chagtre, Santa Maria, Conception, Rio Grande or Magdalena, Maricaibo, and Oroonoko.

Terra Firma contains the province of Terra Firma Proper or Darien, of Carthagena, St. Martha, Rio de la Hacha, Venezuela, Comana, New Andalusia or Paria, New Granada, and Popayan.

Terra Firma Proper lies in the form of a crescent, about the spacious bay of Panama, being the isthmus which joins South and North America, and extending in length between the two seas 300 miles, but in breadth, where the isthmus is narrowest, only 60. Here he found gold mines, gold sands, and fine pearl; and though the land is generally rough, there are some fruitful valleys, watered by rivers, brooks and springs. The chief places are Panama and Porto Bello.

The inhabitants of Terra Firma have never been thoroughly subdued, and in all probability never will, as they are a brave and warlike people, have retreats inaccessible to Europeans, and bear an inveterate enmity to the Spaniards.

The most northern division of Terra Firma is Darien, which it was once intended to colonize by settlers from Scotland; but the project proved abortive, chiefly for want of encouragement from William III.

VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK XIII.

West Indies.

CHAPTER I.

General Description of the West India Islands.

THE vast continent of America is divided into two parts, North and South, the narrow isthmus of Darien serving as a link to connect them together; between the Florida shore, on the northern peninsula, and the gulph of Maracabo, on the southern, lie a multitude of islands, which are called the West Indies, from the name of India, originally assigned to them by Columbus; though, in consequence of the opinions of some geographers of the 15th century, they are frequently known by the appellation of Antilia or Antilles; this term is, however, more often applied to the windward or Caribbean islands.

Subordinate to this comprehensive and simple arrangement, necessity or convenience has introduced more local distinctions; that portion of the Atlantic, which is separated from the main ocean to north and east by the islands, though known by the general appellation of the Mexican gulf, is itself properly divided into three distinct parts; the gulf of Mexico, the bay of Honduras, and the Caribbean sea, so called from that class of islands which bound this part of the ocean on the east. Of this class, a group nearly adjoining to the eastern side of St. John de Porto Rico is likewise called the Virgin isles. The name of Bahama islands is likewise given or applied by the English to a cluster of small islands, rocks, and reefs of sand, which stretch in a north-westerly direction for the space of nearly 300 leagues from the northern coast of Hispaniola to the Bahama strait, opposite to the Florida shore.

Such of the above islands as are worth cultivation now belong to Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark.

THE BRITISH CLAIM

Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Antiqua, Grenada and the Grenadines, Dominica, St. Vincent, Nevis, Montserrat, Barbuda, Anguilla, Trinidad, Bermudas, and the Bahama islands.

THE SPANIARDS CLAIM

Cuba, Margaretta, Porto Rico.

THE FRENCH CLAIM

St. Domingo, Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Bartholomew, Descada, Marigalante, Tobago.

THE DUTCH CLAIM

St. Eustatia, Saba, Curassou or Curacoa.

THE DANES CLAIM

The islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John's.

The climate in all the West India islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about 30 degrees to the south, they would be continually subjected to an extreme and intolerable heat, if the trade winds, rising gradually, as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner as to enable them to attend their concerns, even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from the centre towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

By the same remarkable Providence in the disposing of things, it is, that when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast number of clouds, which shield them from his direct beams, and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which commonly prevails from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West Indies are like floods of water poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers suddenly rise, new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water. Hence it is that the rivers which have their source within the tropics swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; but so mistaken were the antients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dry and scorched up with a considerable and fervent heat, and to be, for that reason, uninhabitable; when, in reality, some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailstones very

great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moisture, which alone does not seem to be a sufficient cause, or to a greater quantity of a sulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are subject to the action of such causes, rust and canker in a very short time; and this cause, perhaps, as much as the heat itself, contributes to make the climate of the West Indies unfriendly and unpleasant to an European constitution.

It is in the rainy season, principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September, that they are assaulted by hurricanes, the most terrible calamity to which they are subject, as well as the people of the East Indies, from the climate; this destroys at a stroke the labours of many years, and prostrates the most exalted hopes of the planter, and at the moment when he thinks himself out of danger. It is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance which the elements can assemble that is terrible and destructive. First they see a prelude to the ensuing havoc, whole fields of sugar-canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country. The strongest trees of the forests are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble: the windmills are swept away in a moment, their utensils and fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers and stills, of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection, the roofs are torn off at one blast, whilst the rain, which, in an hour, raises the water five feet, rushes in upon them with an irresistible violence.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar; this commodity was but little known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not determined whether the cane from which this substance is taken be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but however that may be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively, excellent, and least cloying sweet in nature, which, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar a meaner spirit is procured. The tops of the canes and the leaves which grow upon the joints make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuse of the cane after grinding serves for fire, so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

They compute, that when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, a man cannot begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5000*l.*

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate; this is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it; some are subsisted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork a day. All the rest of the charge

consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket, and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12 pounds annually. The price of men negroes, upon their first arrival, is from 30 to 50 pounds, women and grown boys less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally bring above 40 pounds, upon an average, one with another; and there are instances of a single negro man, expert in the business, bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

CHAPTER II.

English West India Isles.

JAMAICA, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Grenada, Dominica, St. Vincent, Nevis, Montserrat, Barbuda, Anguilla, Trinidad, Bermudas, Bahama islands, Virgin islands.

Jamaica, the largest of the Antilles, and the most valuable, lies between 17° and 19° north latitude, and between 76° and 79° west longitude; is nearly 180 miles in length, and about 60 in breadth; it approaches in its figure to an oval. The windward passage, right before it, hath the island of Cuba on the west, and Hispaniola on the east, and is about 20 leagues in breadth.

This island was first discovered by admiral Christopher Columbus, in his second voyage, who landed upon it, May 5th, 1494, and was so much charmed with it, as always to prefer it to the rest of the islands; in consequence of which his son chose it for his dukedom. It was settled by Juan d'Esquivee, A. D. 1509, who built the town, which, from the place of his birth, he called Seville, and 11 leagues farther to the east stood Melilla; Oriston was on the south side of the island, seated on what is now called the Blue Fields' river. All these are gone to decay, but St. Jago, now Spanish Town, is still the capital. The Spaniards held this country 160 years; and in their time the principal commodity was cacoa; they had an immense stock of horses, asses, and mules, and prodigious quantities of cattle. The English landed here under Penn and Venables, May 11th, 1654, and quickly reduced the island. Cacoa was also their principal commodity, till the old trees decayed, and the new ones did not thrive, and then the planters from Barbadoes introduced sugar-canes, which hath been the great staple ever since.

It abounds in maize, pulse, vegetables of all kinds, meadows of fine grass, a variety of beautiful flowers, and as great a variety of oranges, lemons, citrons, and other rich fruits. Useful animals there are of all sorts, horses, asses, mules, black cattle of a large size, and sheep, the flesh of which is well tasted, though their wool is hairy and bad. Here are also goats and hogs in great plenty, sea and river fish, wild, tame, and water fowl. Amongst other commodities of great value they have the sugar-cane, cacoa, indigo, pimento, cotton, ginger, and coffee; trees for timber and other uses, such as mahogany, machineel, white wood, which no worm will touch, cedar, olives, and many more. Besides these they have fustic, red wood, and various other materials for dyeing. To these we may add a multitude of valuable drugs, such as guaiacum, china sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, vanellas, and the prickle pear or opuntia, which produces the cochineal, with no inconsiderable number of odoriferous gums. Near the coast they have salt ponds, with which they supply their own consumption, and might make any quantity they pleased.

The administration of public affairs is by a governor and council, of royal appointment, and the representatives of the people in the lower house of assembly. Four hundred and seventy-four vessels sailed from Jamaica in 1787, exclusive of coasting

sloops, wherries, &c. It had, in 1789, 710 sugar plantations, and 128,798 negroes employed in cultivating them.

Barbadoes, the most easterly of the Caribbee islands, subject to Great Britain, is about 25 miles from north to south, and 15 from east to west. Notwithstanding the smallness of its extent, the soil is various, being in some places sandy and light, and others rich, and in others spungy; but all of it is cultivated according to its proper nature, so that the island presents to the eye the most beautiful appearance that can be imagined. Oranges and lemons grow in Barbadoes in great plenty, and in their utmost perfection. The lemon-juice here has a peculiar fragrancy. The citrons of Barbadoes afford the best drams and sweetmeats of any in the world, the Barbado ladies excelling in the art of preserving the rind of the citron fruit. The juice of the limes or dwarf lemons is the most agreeable souring we know; and great quantities of it have of late been imported into Britain and Ireland. The pine-apple is also a native of Barbadoes, and grows there to much greater perfection than it can be made to do in Europe by any artificial means. A vast number of different trees, peculiar to the climate, are also found to flourish in Barbadoes in great perfection, such as the aloe, mangrove, calabash, cedar, cotton, mastic, &c. Here likewise are produced some sensitive plants, with a good deal of garden stuff, which is common in other places. In short, a native of the finest, the richest, and most diversified country of Europe can hardly form an idea of the variety of delicious, and, at the same time, nutritive vegetable productions with which the island abounds.

When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled, even by savages. There was no kind of beasts of pasture or of prey; no fruit, no herb, no root fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortune in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support, and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, together with the storm between king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves into this island. And what is extremely remarkable, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its first settlement, that, in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian slaves. The latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour, for they seized upon all those unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery, a practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcilcable ever since. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate sugar, which soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of slaves therefore was still augmented; and in 1676 it is supposed that their number amounted to 100,000; which, together with 50,000 whites, make 150,000 on this small spot, a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers. At the above period, Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships, one with another, of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in

sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 35,000*l.*; and their circulating cash at home was 200,000*l.* Such was the increase of population, trade, and wealth in the course of 50 years. But since that time this island has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to our own establishments in the neighbouring isles. Their numbers at present are said to be 20,000 whites and 100,000 slaves. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent.

St. Christopher's is supposed to be half of it unfit for cultivation, the interior parts consisting of many high and barren mountains, between which are horrid precipices and thick woods. The loftiest mountain, which is a decayed volcano, is called mount Misery; it rises 3711 feet perpendicular height from the sea. Nature has, however, made a recompence for the sterility of the mountains, by the fertility of the plains. The soil is a dark grey loam, very light and porous, and is supposed by Mr. Edwards to be the production of subterraneous fires, finely incorporated with a pure loam, or virgin mould; this soil is peculiarly favourable to the culture of sugar. In the south-west part of the island hot sulphureous springs are found; at the foot of some of the mountains the air is on the whole salubrious, but the island is subject to hurricanes. It has about 4000 white and 26,000 coloured inhabitants.

Antigua has neither stream nor spring of fresh water, but nevertheless has a fertile soil, and, unless in dry years, yields considerable crops. Its white inhabitants amounted, in 1774, to 2590, and the enslaved blacks to 37,808. The legislature of Antigua set the first example of a melioration of the criminal law respecting the negro slaves, by allowing them a trial by jury, &c. And the inhabitants, still more to their honour, have encouraged the propagation of the gospel among their slaves.

Grenada abounds with wild game and fish; it produces also very fine timber, but the cocoa-tree is observed not to thrive here so well as in the other islands. A lake on a high mountain, about the middle of the island, supplies it with fresh water streams. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which might be fortified to great advantage, so that it is very convenient for shipping, not being subject to hurricanes. The soil is capable of producing tobacco, sugar, indigo, pease, and millet. It has about 1000 white inhabitants, 1000 free people of colour, and 24,000 slaves.

Dominica contains many high, rugged mountains, several of which contain volcanoes, which frequently discharge burning sulphur, and from some of the mountains hot springs of water issue. Between the mountains are many fertile valleys, well watered, there being at least 30 fine rivers, besides rivulets in the country.

There are not, however, at this time, more than 50 sugar plantations in work, and, one year with another, they do not produce more than from 2 to 3000 hogsheads per annum. There are more than 200 coffee plantations, which seem to answer well, as in some years they have produced 26,785 hundred weight. Cacoa, indigo, and ginger are also cultivated, but in a very small degree; for the chief of those in the list of exports are obtained from South America, under the sanction of the free-port law. The number of inhabitants, according to the return of 1788, is as follows; white inhabitants of all sorts 1226; free negroes, &c. 445; slaves 14,967; and about 20 or 30 families of Caribbees.

St. Vincent is mountainous and rugged, but the intermediate valleys are exceedingly fertile. Besides the native Caribs, who inhabit the more inaccessible parts of the island, it has about 1500 whites, and 12,000 negro slaves.

Nevis is a beautiful little island, with a soil fertile in the low grounds and more sterile as we ascend higher. It has about 1600 white and 10,000 black inhabitants.

Montserrat is a small but very pleasant island, so called by Columbus from its resemblance to the famous mountain near Barcelona. Its population is about equal to that of Nevis.

Barbuda is a little healthful island, abounding with turtles, deer, and various other game, especially pintadoes. It is the property of the Codrington family.

Anguilla has a chalky soil, and about 700 inhabitants, 500 of whom are negro slaves.

Trinidad, which has been lately ceded by the Spaniards, enjoys the advantage of a healthful climate and freedom from the hurricanes; there was formerly a large bank of pearls on its shores, which was, however soon exhausted. It is inhabited by a few Spaniards, who, with some Indian women, have formed a race of men, that, uniting the indolence of the savage to the vices of civilized nations, are sluggards, cheats, and zealots.

The Bermudas are a cluster of islands, lying almost in the form of a shepherd's crook, in west longitude 65°, north latitude 32° 30'; between 2 and 300 leagues distant from the nearest place of the continent of America, or any other of the West India islands. The whole number of the Bermudas islands is said to be about 400, but very few of them are habitable. The principal is St. George's, which is not above 16 miles long, and three at most in breadth. It is universally agreed that the nature of this and the other Bermudas islands has undergone a surprising alteration for the worse since they were first discovered, the air being much more inclement, and the soil much more barren than formerly; this is ascribed to the cutting down those fine spreading trees, for which the islands were famous, and which sheltered them from the blasts of the north winds, at the same time that it protected the undergrowth of the delicate plants and herbs. In short, the Summer islands are now far from being desirable spots, and their natural productions are but just sufficient for the support of the inhabitants, who, chiefly for that reason perhaps, are temperate and lively, even to a proverb. At first tobacco was raised upon these islands, but being of a worse quality than that growing on the continent, the trade is now almost at an end. Large quantities of ambergris were also originally found upon the coasts, and afforded a valuable commerce, but that trade is also reduced, as likewise their whale trade; though the perquisites upon the latter form part of the governor's revenue, he having ten pounds for every whale that is caught. The Bermudas islands, however, might still produce some valuable commodities, were they properly cultivated.

The Bahamas are situated between 22° and 27° north latitude, and 73° and 81° west longitude. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to Cuba, and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only rocks, but 12 of them are large and fertile; all are, however, uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas; though some others are larger and more fertile, and on which the English have plantations.

The Virgin islands are about 40 in number, of which Tortola is the principal; they contain about 1000 white and 10,000 black inhabitants.

CHAPTER III.

The Spanish, French, Dutch, and Danish Islands.

CUBA is a large and valuable island, and by far the most important of all the Spanish West Indies. It was discovered by Columbus in 1492, and soon after subdued by the Spaniards, who destroyed, by the year 1511, several million of the inhabitants. Finding that this island did not afford gold, they treated it with neglect, so that it affords little else than tobacco and the skins of wild cattle. The hundredth part of the island is not yet cleared, yet it contains about 30,000 inhabitants.

Porto Rico hath 36 leagues in length, 18 in breadth, and 100 in circumference. We may venture to affirm that it is one of the best, if not entirely the best, of the islands of the new world, in proportion to its extent. The air is wholesome and tolerably temperate, and it is watered by the pure streams of a considerable number of small rivulets. Its mountains are covered with either useful or valuable trees, and its valleys have a degree of fertility seldom to be met with elsewhere. All the productions peculiar to America thrive upon this deep soil. A safe port, commodious harbours, and coasts of easy access, are added to these several advantages. On the 1st of January, 1778, the population of Porto Rico amounted to 80,669 inhabitants, of which number only 6568 were slaves. The inhabitants reckoned 77,384 head of horned cattle, 23,195 horses, 1515 mules, and 49,058 head of small cattle.

Margaretta is an island to which the description of Trinidad will apply in almost every particular.

Hispaniola or St. Domingo is the largest of the Caribbee islands, extending about 420 miles from east to west, and 103 in breadth from north to south, lying between 17° 37′ and 20° of north latitude, and between 67° 35′ and 74° 15′ west longitude. The climate is hot, but not reckoned unwholesome, and some of the inhabitants are said to arrive at the age of 120. It is sometimes refreshed by breezes and rains, and its salubrity is likewise in a great measure owing to the beautiful variety of hills and valleys, woods and rivers, which every where present themselves. It is indeed reckoned by far the finest and most pleasant island of the Antilles, as being the best accommodated to all the purposes of life, when duly cultivated.

This island, which is nominally the property of France, and the seat of an independent black empire, has been for many years the scene of the most dreadful desolations.

Martinico is 16 leagues in length, and 45 in circumference, leaving out the capes, some of which extend two or three leagues into the sea; it is very uneven, and intersected in all parts by a number of hillocks, which are mostly of a conical form. Three mountains rise above these smaller eminences; the highest bears the indelible marks of a volcano, the woods with which it is covered continually attract the clouds, which occasion noxious damps, and make it horrid and inaccessible, while the two others are, in most parts, cultivated. From these mountains issue the many springs that water the island; these waters, which flow in gentle streams, are changed into torrents on the slightest storm;

their qualities are derived from the soil over which they flow; in some places they are excellent, in others so bad that the inhabitants are obliged to drink the water they have collected during the rainy season.

In the beginning of the last century it derived, from the cultivation of coffee and clandestine trade with the Spanish [illegible] an abundance of specie, that it became a matter of indifference to the inhabitants whether they received gold, silver, or goods in exchange for their commodities. [illegible] has, however, come to an end, since the English have obtained possession of Curaçoa.

Guadaloupe is an island of an irregular form, abounding with craggy rocks, but its productions are very considerable.

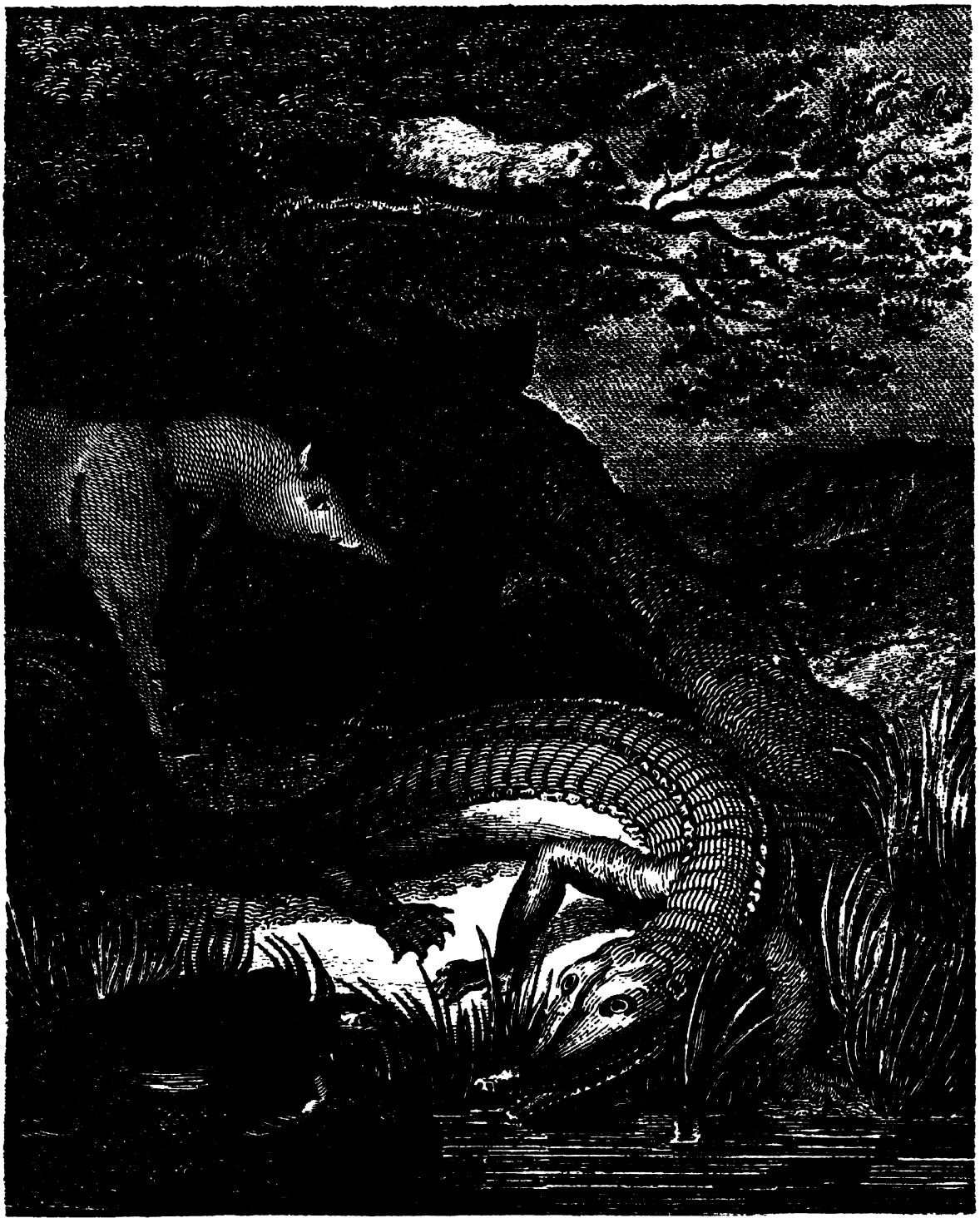
St. Lucia has good soil, but unwholesome air.

Tobago is a very valuable island, which has been much contended for by the different European powers.

St. Partholomew, Deseada, and Marigalante are chiefly serviceable to the French, by affording shelter to their privateers in time of war.

St. Eustatius has but few natural advantages; but, through the industry of the Dutch, raises sugar and tobacco, and carries on a contraband trade with the Spaniards. The same character is applicable to Curaçoa, which besides furnishes the English islands with salt.

The Danish islands of St. John, St. Thomas, and St. Croix are very diminutive, but raise some sugar, and derive considerable advantage from the sale of prizes, which are brought in here by privateers of different nations in time of war.



VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK XIV.

North America.

CHAPTER I.

Spanish America.———Mexico, Florida, and California.

MEXICO is situated between 9° and 40° north latitude, and 18° and 50° west longitude. Its length is 2100 miles, and breadth 1600. It is bounded on the north by unknown regions; on the east by Louisiana and the gulf of Mexico; on the south by the isthmus of Darien, which separates it from Terra Firma in South America; on the west by the Pacific ocean.

This vast country is divided into three grand divisions, viz. 1. Old Mexico. 2. New Mexico Proper. 3. California, lying on the west, and a peninsula.

The climate of Old Mexico varies much, according to the situation of its different parts; the maritime places are hot, unhealthy, and moist, the heat being so great as to cause people to sweat, even in the month of January: this heat is supposed to be owing to the flatness of the coasts, and the accumulation of sand upon them. The moisture arises from the vast evaporation from the sea, as well as from the great torrents of water descending from the mountains. The lands which lie in the neighbourhood of high mountains, the tops of which are always covered with snow, must, of necessity, be cold; and Clavigero informs us, that he has been on a mountain, not more than 25 miles distant from the city of Mexico, where there was white frost and ice, even in the dog days. "All the other inland countries," says the same author, "where the greatest population prevailed, enjoy a climate so mild and benign, that they neither feel the rigour of winter nor the heat of summer. It is true, in many of the countries there is frequently white frost in the three months of December, January, and February, and sometimes even it snows, but the small inconvenience which such cold occasions continues only till the rising sun; no other fire than his rays is necessary to give warmth in winter; no other relief is wanting in the season of heat but the shade; the same clothing which covers men in the dog days defend them in January, and the animals sleep all the year under the open sky.

Mexico has several volcanoes, besides other mountains of remarkable height. The vast chain of mountains called the Andes are continued through the isthmus of Panama,

and through all Mexico, until they are lost in the unknown mountains of the north. The most considerable in that chain is known in Mexico by the name of Sierra Madre, particularly in Cinalo and Tarahumara, provinces no less than 1200 miles distant from the capital.

Mexico is well watered by very considerable rivers, though none of them are comparable to those of South America.

There are also several lakes, remarkable for their size or beauty; and a variety of mineral waters, of the nitrous, sulphureous, and aluminous kinds. The mineral productions of Mexico are very valuable; the natives found gold in several provinces of the empire; they gathered it principally from the sands of their rivers, in grains; and the people, in whose country it was found, were obliged to pay a certain quantity, by way of tribute, to the emperor. They dug silver out of the mines in Tlachco and some other countries, but it was less prized by them than by other nations. Since the conquest, however, so many silver mines have been discovered in that country, especially in the provinces to the north-west of the capital, that it is in vain to attempt any enumeration of them. They had two sorts of copper, one hard, which served them instead of iron, to make axes and other instruments for war and agriculture; the other kind, which was soft and flexible, served for domestic utensils, as with us. They had also tin from the mines of Tlachco, and dug lead out of mines in the country of the Otamies, but we are not informed what uses they put this last metal to. They had likewise mines of iron at Tlascala and Tlachco, and some other places; but these were either unknown to the Mexicans, or they did not know how to benefit themselves by them. In Chilapan were mines of quicksilver, and in many places they had sulphur, alum, vitriol, cinnabar, ochre, and an earth greatly resembling white lead. These minerals were employed in painting and dyeing, but we know not to what use they put their quicksilver. There was great abundance of amber and asphaltum upon their coasts, both of which were paid in tribute to the king of Mexico, from many parts of the empire; the former was wont to be set in gold, by way of ornament, and asphaltum was employed in their sacrifices.

Mexico produces some diamonds, though but few in number; but they had, in greater plenty, some other precious stones, such as amethysts, cats' eyes, torquoises, cornelians, and some green stones resembling emeralds, and very little inferior to them, of all which a tribute was paid to the emperor, by the people in whose territories they were found. They were likewise furnished with crystal in plenty, from the mountains which lie on the coast of the Mexican gulf, between the port of Vera Cruz and the river Coatzacualco. In the mountains of Celpolalpan, to the eastward of Mexico, were quarries of jasper and marble of different colours; they had likewise alabaster, at a place called Tecalco, now Tecale, in the neighbourhood of the province of Tapeyacac, and many other parts of the empire. The stone tetzontli is generally of a dark red colour, pretty hard, porous, and light, and unites most firmly with lime and sand, on which account it is of great request for buildings in the capital, where the foundation is bad. There are entire mountains of loadstone, a very considerable one of which lies between Teoitzlan and Chilapan, in the country of the Cohnixcas. They formed curious figures of nephritic-stone, some of which are still preserved in European museums. They had a kind of fine white talc, which burnt into an excellent plaster, and with which they used to whiten their paintings.

But the most useful stone they had was that called itzli, of which there is great abundance in many parts of Mexico; it has a glossy appearance, is generally of a black colour, and semi-transparent, though sometimes also of a blue or white colour. In South America this stone is called pietra del galinazzo; and count Caylus endeavours to show, in a manuscript dissertation, quoted by Bomare, that the obsidiona, of which the antients made their vases murini, were entirely similar to this stone. The Mexicans made of it looking-glasses, knives, lancets, razors, and spears. Sacred vases were made of it after the introduction of Christianity.

The soil of Mexico, though various, produced every where the necessaries and even the luxuries of life. "The celebrated Dr. Hernandes, the Pliny of New Spain," says Clavigero, "has described, in his Natural History, about 1200 plants, natives of the country; but his description, though large, being confined to medicinal plants, has only comprised one part of what provident nature has produced there for the benefit of mortals. With regard to the other classes of vegetables, some are esteemed for their flowers, some for their fruit, some for their leaves, some for their root, some for their wood, and others for their gum, resin, oil, or juice."

Here are a great variety of palm-trees, timbers of various kinds, medicinal and aromatic trees, and esculent plants. The animals which are common to Mexico, with the other parts of the continent, are the Mexican hog, the moufete, the opossum, the armadilla, the techichi, a small animal resembling a dog, which, being perfectly dumb, gave occasion to a report that the Mexican dogs could not bark. The flesh of this animal was eat by them, and was esteemed agreeable and nourishing food. After the conquest of Mexico, the Spaniards, having neither large cattle nor sheep, provided their markets with this quadruped, by which means the species soon came to be extinct, though it had been very numerous. The land-squirrel is very numerous in the kingdom of Michuacan, has great elegance of form, and is extremely graceful in its movements, but it cannot be tamed, and bites most furiously every person who approaches it.

Besides these there are sea-lions, raccoons, and that rapacious animal named the tapir; there are likewise great numbers of monkeys, of many different kinds, some of which have heads resembling those of dogs; some of them are strong and fierce, equalling a man in stature when they stand upright.

Among the animals peculiar to Mexico is one named by Clavigero coyoto, which appears to have been inaccurately described by natural historians, some making it one species and some another. The thalcojotl or thalcoyoto is about the size of a middling dog, and, in Clavigero's opinion, is the largest animal that lives under the earth; the tepeizuintli, or mountain-dog, though it is but the size of a small dog, is so bold that it attacks deer, and sometimes kills them. Another animal, larger than the two foregoing, is called the xoloitzcuintli; some of these are of no less than four feet in length; it has a face like the dog, but tusks like the wolf, with erect ears, the neck gross, and the tail long; it is entirely destitute of hair, except only the snout, where there are some thick crooked bristles; the whole body is covered with a smooth, soft, ash-coloured skin, spotted partly with black and tawny: this species of animals, as well as the two former, is almost totally extinct. A Lyncean academician, named Giovanni Fabri, has endeavoured to prove that the xoloitzcuintli is the same with the wolf of Mexico, but this is denied by Clavigero.

An animal called ocotochtli, a kind of white cat, is remarkable more for the fabulous account of it, than for any singular property with which it is really endowed. According to Dr. Hernandez, when this creature takes its prey, it covers it with leaves, and afterwards mounting on some neighbouring tree, it begins howling, to invite other animals to eat its prey, being itself always the last to eat, because the poison of its tongue is so strong, that, if it ate first, the prey would be infected, and other animals which eat of it would die. To these must be added a curious animal of the mole kind, which is called tozan or tuza; it is about the size of an European mole, but very different otherwise.

The birds are so numerous, and of such various appearances and qualities, that Mexico has been called the country of birds, as Africa is of quadrupeds. Though Hernandes passes over a great number of species, he yet describes above 200 peculiar to the country. He allows to the eagles and hawks of Mexico a superiority over those of Europe, and the falcons of this country were formerly esteemed so excellent, that, by the desire of Philip II. 100 of them were sent every year over to Spain. The largest, the most beautiful, and the most valuable kind of eagles is called by the Mexicans itzquauhtli, and will pursue not only the larger kind of birds, but quadrupeds, and even men.

The aquatic birds are very numerous, and of great variety; there are at least 20 species of ducks, a vast number of geese, with several kinds of herons, great number of swans, quails, water-rails, divers, kingfishers, pelicans, &c. The multitude of ducks is sometimes so great, that they cover the fields, and appear at a distance like flocks of sheep. Some of the herons and egrets are perfectly white, some ash-coloured, others have the plumage of the body white, while the neck, with the tops and upper parts of the wings, and part of the tail are enlivened with a bright scarlet or beautiful blue.

Here are several species of serpents, some of them remarkable for their bulk, and others for their poisonous quality. The original inhabitants are thus described by Clavigero. "They generally rather exceed than fall under the middle size, and are well-proportioned in all their limbs; they have good complexions, narrow foreheads, black eyes, clean, firm, white, and regular teeth, thick, black, coarse, and glossy hair, thin beards, and generally no hair upon their legs, thighs, and arms, their skin being of an olive colour. There is scarce a nation on earth in which there are fewer persons deformed; and it would be more difficult to find a single hump-backed, lame, or squint-eyed man among 1000 Mexicans than among 100 of any other nation. The unpleasantness of their colour, the smallness of their foreheads, the thinness of their beards, and the courseness of their hair, are so far compensated by the regularity of their limbs, that they can neither be called very beautiful nor the contrary, but seem to hold a middle place between the extremes; their appearance neither engages nor disgusts; but among the young women of Mexico there are many very beautiful and fair, whose beauty is at the same time rendered more winning by the natural sweetness of their manner of speaking, and by the pleasantness and natural modesty of their whole behaviour. Their senses are very acute, especially that of sight, which they enjoy unimpared to the latest age. Their constitutions are sound, and their health robust; they are entirely free from many disorders which are common among the Spaniards; but of the epidemical diseases, to which their country is occasionally subject, they are generally victims; with them these diseases begin, and with them they end.

The oppression which they suffered, after the conquest of their country by Cortes, in the beginning of the 16th century, would probably have annihilated their race, had not their misfortunes excited the compassion of Bartholomew De Las Casas.

This man, so famous in the annals of the new world, had accompanied his father in the first voyage made by Columbus. The mildness and simplicity of the Indians affected him so strongly, that he made himself an ecclesiastic, in order to devote his labours to their conversion; but this soon became the least of his attention. As he was more a man than a priest, he felt more for the cruelties exercised against them for their superstitions. He was continually hurrying from one hemisphere to another, in order to comfort the people, for whom he had conceived an attachment, or to soften their tyrants. His conduct, which made him idolized by the one, and dreaded by the other, had not the success he expected. The hope of striking awe, by a character revered among the Spaniards, determined him to accept the bishopric of Chiapa, in Mexico. When he was convinced that this dignity was an insufficient barrier against that avarice and cruelty which he endeavoured to check, he abdicated it. It was then that this courageous, firm, and disinterested man accused his country, before the tribunal of the whole universe. In his account of the tyranny of the Spaniards in America, he accuses them of having destroyed 15,000,000 of the Indians. They ventured to find fault with the acrimony of his stile, but no one convicted him of exaggeration. His writings, which indicate the amiable turn of his disposition, and the sublimity of his sentiments, have stamped a disgrace upon his barbarous countrymen, which time hath not, nor never will efface.

The court of Madrid, awakened by the representations of the virtuous Las Casas, and by the indignation of the whole world, became sensible at last that the tyranny it permitted was repugnant to religion, to humanity, and to policy, and resolved to break the chains of the Mexicans. Their liberty was now only constrained, upon the sole condition that they should not quit the territory where they were settled. This precaution owed its origin to the fear that was entertained in going to join the wandering savages to the north and south of the empire.

With their liberty, their lands ought also to have been restored to them, but this was not done. This injustice compelled them to work solely for their oppressors. It was only decreed that the Spaniards, in whose service they laboured, should stipulate to keep them well, and pay them to the amount of five guineas a year.

From these profits the tribute imposed by government was subtracted, together with four shillings and four-pence halfpenny, for an institution, which is astonishing that the conquerors should have thought of establishing. This was a fund set apart in each community, and appropriated to the relief of such Indians as were decayed or indisposed, and to their support under private or public calamities.

The distribution of this fund was committed to their caciques. These were not the descendants of those whom they found in the country at the time of the conquest. The Spaniards chose them from among those Indians who appeared the most attached to their interests, and were under no apprehension of making those dignities hereditary. Their authority was limited to the police in their district, which in general extended eight or ten leagues, to the collecting the tribute of those Indians who laboured on their own account,

that of the others being stopped by the masters whom they served, and to the preventing their flight, by always keeping them under their inspection, and not suffering them to contract any engagement without their consent. As a reward of their services, these magistrates obtained from government a property; they were permitted to take out of the common stock two-pence halfpenny annually for every Indian under their jurisdiction. At last they were empowered to get their fields cultivated by such young men as were not yet subject to the poll tax, and to employ girls till the time of their marriage in such occupations as were adapted to their sex, without allowing them any salary except their maintenance.

These institutions, which totally changed the condition of the Indians in Mexico, irritated the Spaniards to a degree not to be conceived Their pride would not suffer them to consider the Americans as free men, nor would their avarice permit them to pay for labour, which hitherto had cost them nothing. They employed successively, or in combination, craft, remonstrances, and violence, to effect the subversion of an arrangement, which so strongly contradicted their warmest passions, but their efforts were ineffectual. Las Casas had raised up for his beloved Indians protectors, who seconded his design with zeal and warmth. The Mexicans themselves, finding a support, impeached their oppressors before the tribunals, and even the tribunals that were either weak or in the interest of the court. They carried their resolutions so far as even unanimously to refuse to work for those who had treated any of their countrymen with injustice. This mutual agreement, more than any other circumstance, gave solidity to the regulations which had been decreed; the other, described by the laws, was gradually established. There was no longer any regular system of oppression, but merely several of those particular vexations, which belong to a vanquished people who have lost their government.

The clandestine acts of injustice did not prevent the Mexicans from recovering, from time to time, certain detached portions of that immense territory of which their fathers had been despoiled. They purchased them of the royal domain, or of the great proprietors. It was not their labour which enabled them to make these acquisitions; for this they were indebted to the happiness of having discovered, some of them mines, and others treasures, which had been concealed at the time of the conquest. The greatest number derived their resources from the priests and monks, to whom they owed their existence.

Even those who experienced a fortune less propitious procured for themselves, by the sole profits of their pay, more conveniences than they had enjoyed before they underwent a foreign yoke. We should be very much deceived, if we should judge of the antient prosperity of the inhabitants of Mexico, by what has been said by different writers, of its emperor, its court, its capital, and the governors of its provinces. Despotism had there produced those fatal effects which it produces every where. The whole state was sacrificed to the caprices, pleasures, and magnificence of a small number of persons.

The government drew considerable advantages from the mines which it caused to be worked, and still greater from those which were in the hands of the individuals. The salt-works greatly added to its revenue. Those who followed agriculture at the time of harvest paid a kind of third of all the produce of the lands, whether they belonged to them as their own property, or whether they were only farmers of them. Men who lived by

the chace, fishermen, porters, and all mechanics, paid the same proportion of their industry every month. Even the poor were taxed, at certain fixed contributions, which their labour or their alms might put them in a condition to pay.

The Mexicans are now less unhappy; European fruits, corn, and cattle have rendered their food more wholesome, agreeable, and abundant: their houses are better built, better disposed, and better furnished; shoes, drawers, shirts, a garment of wool or cotton, a ruff, and a hat, constitute their dress. The dignity which it has been agreed to annex to these enjoyments has made them better economists and more laborious. This case, however, is far from being universal; it is even very uncommon in the vicinity of the mines, towns, and great roads, where tyranny seldom sleeps: but we often find it with satisfaction in remote parts, where the Spaniards are not numerous, and where they have, in some measure, become Mexicans.

New Mexico is but little known. It has a pleasant climate and fertile soil, and is inhabited by a variety of Indian nations.

California is a country stretching about 800 leagues in length, and has consequently a considerable variety of soil and climate; and indeed we find, from good authority, that California produces some of the most beautiful lawns, as well as many of the most inhospitable deserts, in the universe. Upon the whole, although California is rather rough and craggy, we are assured, by the Jesuit Vinegas and other good writers, that, with due culture, it furnishes every necessary and convenience of life, and that even where the atmosphere is hottest, vapours rising from the sea, and dispersed by pleasant breezes, render it of a moderate temperature.

The Californians are well made and very strong; they are extremely pusillanimous, inconstant, stupid, and even insensible, and seem deserving of the character given the Indians in general. Before the Europeans penetrated into California, the natives had no form of religion. The missionaries indeed tell us many tales concerning them, but they so evidently bear the marks of forgery, as not to be worth repeating. Each nation was then an assemblage of several cottages, more or less numerous, that were all mutually confederated by alliances, but without any chief. They were strangers even to filial obedience. No kind of dress was used by the men, but the women made use of some covering, and were even fond of ornamenting themselves with pearls, and such other trinkets as their country afforded. What mostly displayed their ingenuity was the construction of their fishing-nets, which are said by the Jesuits even to have exceeded in goodness those made in Europe; they were made by women, of a coarse kind of flax, procured from some plants which grow there. The houses were built of branches and leaves of trees, nay many of them were only inclosures of earth and stone, raised half a yard high, without any covering, and even these were so small that they could not stretch themselves at length in them. In winter they dwelt under ground in caves, either natural or artificial.

Louisiana is bounded by the Mississippi on the east; by the gulf of Mexico on the south; by New Mexico on the west; and runs indefinitely north. Under the French government, Louisiana included both sides of the Mississippi, from its mouth to the Illinois, and back from the river east and west indefinitely.

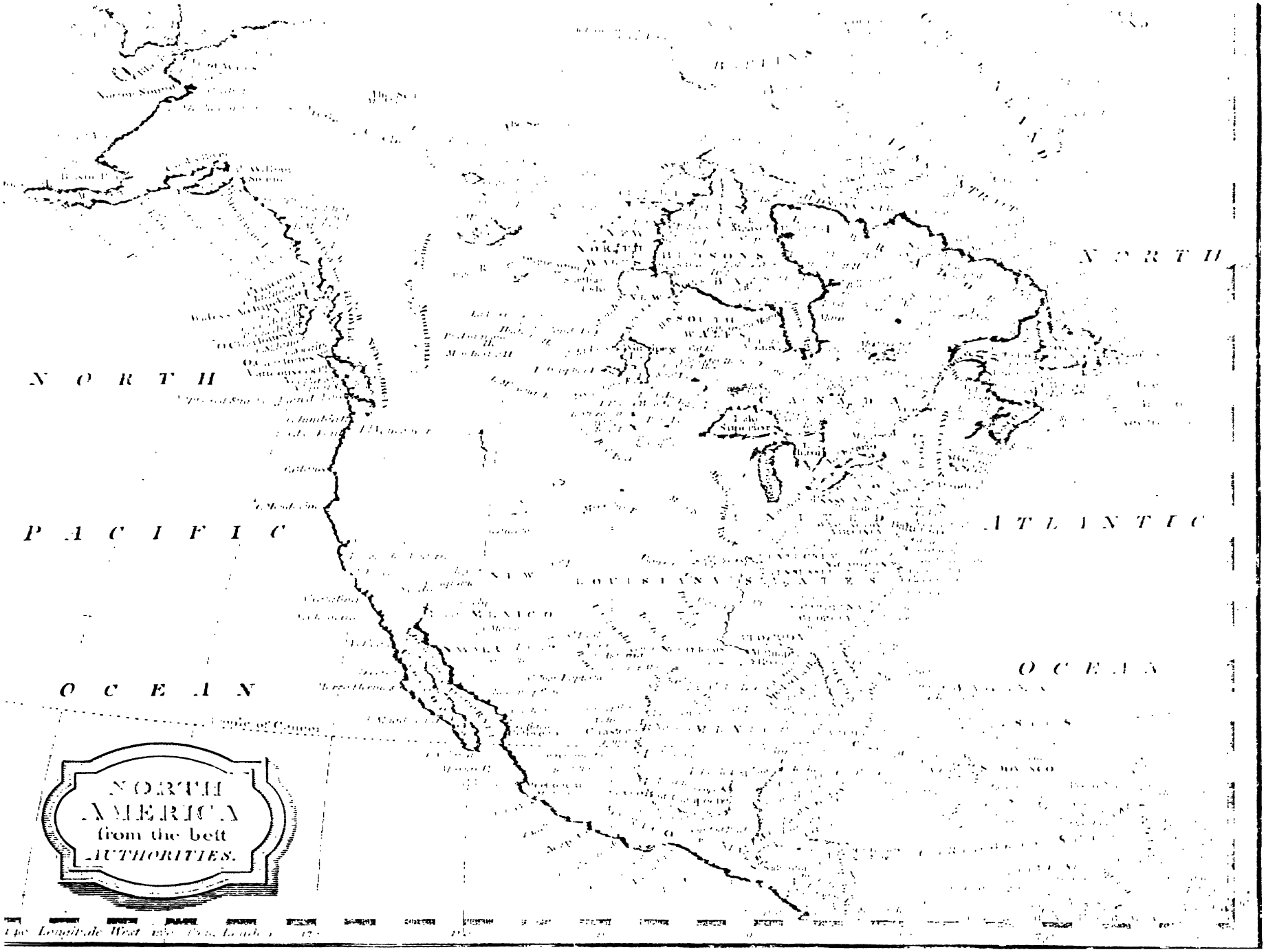
It is a country very thinly settled, though it is supposed, from its natural fertility, that it might be productive of great advantage.

East and West Florida are situated between 25° and 31° north latitude, and 5° and 17° west longitude from Philadelphia; the length is about 600 miles, and the breadth about 120. They are bounded north by Georgia; east by the Atlantic ocean; south by the gulf of Mexico; west by the Mississippi; lying in the form of an L. The climate varies very little from that of Georgia.

It has a great variety of soils, but is generally fertile. It produces a great variety of trees, particularly white and red oak, live oak, laurel magnolia, pine, hickory, cypress, red and white cedar.

The live oaks, though not tall, contain a prodigious quantity of timber. The trunk is generally from 12 to 20 feet in circumference, and rises 10 or 12 feet from the earth, and then branches into four or five great limbs, which grow in nearly a horizontal direction, forming a gentle curve. "I have stepped" says Bartram "above 50 paces, on a straight line, from the trunk of one of these trees to the extremity of the limbs." They are ever green, and the wood almost incorruptible. They bear a great quantity of small acorns, which are agreeable food when roasted, and from which the Indians extract a sweet oil, which they use in cooking rice.

The capital of East Florida is St. Augustine, and that of West Florida is Pensacola. Both these countries were possessed by the English from the year 1763, till they reverted to the Spaniards by the peace which terminated the American war.


NORTH AMERICA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.
NORTH
PACIFIC
OCEAN
NORTH
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
Lake Superior
Longitude West

CHAPTER II.

The United States

THE United States are bounded on the west by certain Indian nations; on the north by British America; on the west by the Atlantic; and on the south by Spanish America. Their divisions, dimensions, number of inhabitants, &c. are exhibited in the following table:

Names of states and colonies.	Length.	Breadth.	Number of Inhabitants.	Capital Established.	Chief Towns.	Distance and bearing from Philadelphia.	
New Hampshire	180	60	102,000*	1787	Portsmouth	408	N. E.
Massachusets	450	164	360,000*	1787	Boston	342	N. E.
Rhode Island	68	40	51,996	1783	Newport	280	E. N. E.
Connecticut	81	57	209,150	1782	Newhaven	181	N. E.
New York	350	300	328,897	1786	New York	95	E. N. E.
New Jersey	160	52	149,435	1784	Trenton	30	N. E.
Pennsylvania	288	156	360,000*	1787	Philadelphia		
Delaware	92	16	37,000*	1787	Dover	72	S. S. W.
Maryland	134	110	253,630	1782	Annapolis	132	S. W.
Virginia	758	224	567,614	1782	Richmond	276	S. W.
North Carolina	758	110	270,000*	1787	Edenton	442	S. S. W.
South Carolina	200	125	180,000*	1787	Charleston	814	S. S. W.
Georgia	600	250	98,000*	1787	Augusta	924	S. W.
Vermont	155	60	100,000*	1788	Bennington	299	N. E.
Western Territory	1000	450	6,000*	1788	Adelphi	492	W.
Kentucky	*included in Virginia*		100,000*	1788	Lexington	947 *by water*	W.
Total			3,083,622				

N. B. In the column containing the number of inhabitants, the numbers marked * are as reckoned in the convention at Philadelphia in 1787, excepting North Carolina, Vermont, Western Territory, and Kentucky; the others are taken from actual enumeration.

The distances of the several capitals from Philadelphia are reckoned as the roads run.

The United States were 13 in number, at the time of their first association in 1776; since that time Vermont, Kentucky, and Western Territory have been added; the last of which is of such vast extent, that it is intended by Congress that it shall be divided into ten new states, to be called Washington, Metropotamia, Pesilippi, Michigonia, Illinoia, Chersonesus, Saratoga, Sylvania, Assenipi, and Pelopotamia. These ten states, spreading

over an immense tract of land, are traversed by the great river Ohio, in a course of 1200 miles, receiving into its waters the innumerable rivers which are scattered over the whole country. On the north they are bounded by the five great lakes, Superior, Machigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario, which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence. On the east they have the states of New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, whose navigation, as well as the St. Lawrence, affords them a direct communication with the Atlantic ocean. On the south they are partly bounded by the mountains; and on the west by the vast river Mississippi, whose source is unknown, and which, after flowing through the great continent of America, admitting into its swelling waves the tributes of a thousand waters, falls into the gulf of Mexico.

From the best account that can be at present obtained, there are, within the limits of the United States, 3,083,600 people. This number, which is rapidly increasing, both by emigrations from Europe and by natural population, is composed of people of almost all nations, languages, characters, and religions. The greater part, however, are descended from the English, and, for the sake of distinction, are called Anglo-Americans.

The English language is the one which is universally spoken in the United States, in which business is transacted, and the records kept.

Intermingled with the Anglo-Americans are the Dutch, Scotch, Irish, French, Germans, Swedes, and Jews; all these, except the Scotch and Irish, retain, in a greater or less degree, their native language, in which they perform their public worship, converse, and transact their business with each other.

The coast of the United States was discovered by John and Sebastian Cabot, two Venetian mariners, who were employed to discover unknown lands, by our king, Henry VII. It was left unsettled for many years, during which time it was denominated Florida, till, in the year 1584, queen Elizabeth granted two patents, one to Adrian Gilbert, the other to sir Walter Raleigh, for lands not possessed by any Christian prince. Sir Walter dispatched two ships, which anchored in a harbour, seven leagues west of the Roanoke, took possession of the country in a formal manner, and, in honour of queen Elizabeth, called it Virginia. Virginia became from this time the common name for North America. No successful attempt was, however, made to colonize America, before the year 1606.

In the spring of this year, James I. by patent, divided Virginia into two colonies. The southern included all lands between the 34° and 41° degrees of north latitude. This was styled the first colony under the name of South Virginia, and was granted to the London company. The northern, called the second colony, and known by the general name of North Virginia, included all lands between the 38° and 45° of north latitude, and was granted to the Plymouth company. Each of these colonies had a council of 13 men to govern them. To prevent disputes about territory, the colonies were prohibited to plant within 100 miles of each other. There appears to be an inconsistency in these grants, as the lan[illegible]ng between the 38° and 41° are covered by both patents.

Both the London and Plymouth companies enterprised settlements within the limits of their respective grants; with what success will now be mentioned.

Piercy, brother of the earl of Northumberland, in the service of the London company, went over with a colony to Virginia, and discovered Powhatan, now James river. In the

mean time, the Plymouth company sent Henry Challons, in a vessel of 55 tons, to plant a colony in North Virginia; but in his voyage he was taken by a Spanish fleet, and carried to Spain.

1607.] The London company this spring sent Christopher Newport, with three vessels, to South Virginia. He entered Chesapeak bay, and landed, and soon after gave to the most southern point the name of Cape Henry, which it still retains. Having elected Edward Wingfield president for the year, they next day landed all their men, and began a settlement at James river, at a place which they called James town. This is the first town that was settled by the English in North America. Newport then sailed for England, leaving with the president 104 persons; and soon after this died Bartholomew Gosnold, the first projector of this settlement, and one of the council. The following winter James town was burnt.

During this time the Plymouth company fitted out two ships, under the command of Rawley Gilbert. They sailed for North Virginia with 100 planters, and George Popham for their president; they arrived in summer, and settled about nine or ten leagues to the southward of the mouth of Sagadahok river. A great part of the colony, however, disheartened by the severity of the weather, returned to England, leaving their president Popham with only 45 men.

It was in the fall of this year, that the puritans, who afterwards settled at Plymouth in New England, removed from the north of England to Holland, to avoid the cruelties of persecution.

1608.] The Sagadahok colony suffered great hardships, after the departure of their friends, in December. In the depth of winter, which is extremely cold, their store-house caught fire, and was consumed, with most of their provisions and lodgings. Soon after this their president died, and Rawley Gilbert was appointed to succeed him.

The chief justice Popham made every exertion to keep this colony alive, by repeatedly sending them supplies. But the circumstance of his death, which happened this year, together with that of the president Gilbert's being called to England, to settle his affairs, broke up the colony, and they all returned with him to England.

The unfavourable reports which these first unsuccessful adventurers propagated respecting the country, prevented any further attempts to settle North Virginia for several years after.

In 1609, the puritans, who had settled at Amsterdam, removed to Leyden. The next year the first effectual settlement of Virginia was made by De la War, governor of the colony. This year also New York began to be settled by the Dutch.

Between the years 1614 and 1620 several attempts were made by the Plymouth company to settle New England, but, by various means, they were all rendered ineffectual. During this time, however, an advantageous trade was carried on with the natives.

1617.] In this year the puritans at Leyden meditated a removal to America. Various difficulties intervened to prevent the success of their designs, until the year 1620, when a part of the congregation came over and settled at Plymouth. At this time commenced the settlement of New England.

The next year after the settlement of Plymouth, John Mason obtained of the Plymouth council a grant of the present state of New Hampshire. Two years after, under the au-

thority of this grant, a small colony settled near the mouth of Piscataqua river. From this period we may date the settlement of New Hampshire.

In 1627 a colony of Swedes and Fins came over and landed at Cape Henlopen, and afterwards purchased of the Indians the land from Cape Henlopen to the falls of Delaware, on both sides of the river, which they called New Sweedland stream. On this river they built several forts, and made settlements.

In 1628 the council for New England sold to Henry Roswell and five others, a large tract of land, lying round Massachusett's bay; and John Endicot, with his wife and company, came over and settled at Naumkeag, now called Salem. This was the first English settlement which was made in Massachusett's bay. Plymouth, indeed, which is now included in the commonwealth of Massachusetts, was settled eight years before; but at this time it was a separate colony, under a distinct government, and continued so until the second charter of Massachusetts was granted by William and Mary, in 1691, by which Plymouth, the province of Main, and Sagadahok were annexed to Massachusetts.

In the reign of Charles I. Lord Baltimore, a romanist, applied and obtained a grant of a track of land upon Chesapeak bay, about 140 miles long and 130 broad. Soon after this, in consequence of the rigour of the laws of England against the papists, Baltimore, with a number of his persecuted brethren, came over and settled it, and, in honour of queen Henrietta Maria, they called it Maryland. This colony had the honour of giving the first example of religious toleration in America.

The first grant of Connecticut was made by Robert, earl of Warwick, president of the council of Plymouth, to lord Say and Seal, lord Brook, and others, in the year 1631. In consequence of several grants, made afterwards by the patentees, to particular persons, Fenwick made a settlement at the mouth of Connecticut river, and called it Saybrook. Four years after, a number of people from Massachusett's bay came, and began settlements at Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor, or Connecticut river. Thus commenced the English settlement of Connecticut.

Rhode island was first settled in consequence of religious persecution. Roger Williams, who was among those who early came over to Massachusetts, not agreeing with some of his brethren in sentiment, was banished the colony, and went, with twelve others, his adherents, and settled at Providence, in 1635. From this beginning arose the colony, now state, of Rhode island.

In 1664, Charles II. granted to the duke of York what is now called New Jersey, then a part of a large tract of country, by the name of New Netherlands. Some parts of New Jersey were settled by the Dutch as early as about 1615.

In the year 1662, Charles II. granted to Edward, earl of Clarendon, and seven others, almost the whole territory of the three Southern States, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. Two years after he granted a second charter, enlarging their boundaries. The proprietors, by virtue of authority vested in them by their charter, engaged John Locke to frame a system of laws for the government of their intended colony. Notwithstanding these preparations, no effectual settlement was made, until the year 1669, (though one was attempted in 1667,) when William Sayle came over with a colony, and fixed on a neck of land, between Ashly and Cooper rivers. Thus commenced the settlement of Carolina; which then included the whole territory between the 29° and 36½° north

latitude, together with the Bahama islands, lying between latitude 22 and 27 degrees north.

The royal charter for Pennsylvania was granted to William Penn, 1681. The first colony came over the next year, and settled under the proprietor, who acted as governor.

The proprietary government in Carolina was attended with so many inconveniences, and occasioned such violent dissensions among the settlers, that the parliament in Great Britain was induced to take the province under their immediate care. The proprietors (except lord Grenville) accepted of 22,500*l.* from the crown, for the property of jurisdiction. This agreement was ratified by act of parliament in 1729. A clause in this act reserved to Grenville his eighth share of the property and arrears of quit rents, which continued vested in his family till the revolution in 1776. His share made a part of the present state of North Carolina. About the year 1729, the extensive territory belonging to the proprietors was divided into South and North Carolina. They remained separate royal governments, until they became independent states.

For the relief of poor indigent people of Great Britain and Ireland, and for the security of Carolina, a project was formed for planting a colony between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha. Accordingly, application being made to George II. he issued letters patent, bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally carrying into execution the plan. In honour of the king, who greatly encouraged the plan, they called the new province Georgia. Twenty-one trustees were appointed to conduct the affairs relating to the settlement of the province. The November following, 115 persons, one of whom was general Oglethorpe, embarked for Georgia, where they arrived, and landed at Yamacraw. In exploring the country, they found an elevated pleasant spot of ground, on the bank of a navigable river, upon which they marked out a town, and, from the Indian name of the river which passed by it, called it Savannah. From this period we may date the settlement of Georgia.

Kentucky was first discovered by James Macbride, and some others who were in company with him, in 1754. Daniel Boon explored it in 1769. Four years after, Boon and his family, with five other families, who were joined by 40 men from Powle's valley, began the settlement of Kentucky, which is now a very flourishing colony.

The tract of country called Vermont, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire. When hostilities commenced between Great Britain and the colonies, the inhabitants, considering themselves as in a state of nature, and not within any legal jurisdiction, associated and formed for themselves a constitution of civil government. Since that time, 1777, Vermont has, to all intents and purposes, been a sovereign and independent state.

The extensive tract of country lying north-west of the Ohio river, within the limits of the United States, was erected into a separate temporary state of government, by an ordinance of Congress, passed in 1787.

Before the revolution, there were three kinds of government established in the British American colonies. The first was a charter government, by which the powers of legislation were vested in a governor, council, and assembly, chosen by the people. Of this kind were the governments of Connecticut and Rhode island. The second was a proprietary government, in which the proprietor of the province was governor; although he generally resided abroad, and administered the government by a deputy of his own appointment,

the assembly only being chosen by the people. Such were the governments of Pennsylvania and Maryland, and originally of New Jersey and Carolina. The third kind was that of royal government, where the governor and council were appointed by the crown, and the assembly by the people. Of this kind were the governments of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, after the year 1702; Virginia, the Carolinas, after the resignation of the proprietors, in 1728; and Georgia. This variety of governments created different degrees of dependence on the crown. To render laws valid, it was constitutionally required that they should be ratified by the king, but this formality was often dispensed with, especially in the charter governments.

At the beginning of the last war of George II. with France, commissioners from many of the colonies had assembled at Albany, and proposed that a great council should be formed by deputies for the several colonies, which, with a general governor, to be appointed by the crown, should be empowered to take measures for the common safety, and to raise money for the execution of their designs. This proposal was not relished by the British ministry, but, in place of this plan, it was proposed that the governors of the colonies, with the assistance of one or two of their council, should assemble and concert measures for the general defence, erect forts, levy troops, and draw on the treasury of England for monies that should be wanted, but the treasury to be reimbursed, by a tax on the colonies, to be laid by the English parliament. To this plan, which would imply an avowal of the right of parliament to tax the colonies, the provincial assemblies objected, with unshaken firmness; and the war was carried on by requisitions on the colonies for supplies of men and money, or by voluntary contributions.

But no sooner was peace concluded, than the English parliament resumed the plan of taxing the colonies, and, to justify their attempts, said that the money to be raised was to be appropriated to defray the expence of defending them in the late war.

The first attempt to raise a revenue in America appeared in the memorable stamp act, passed in 1765, by which it was enacted that certain instruments of writing, as bills, bonds, &c. should not be valid in law, unless drawn on stamped paper, on which a duty was laid. No sooner was this act published in America, than it raised a general alarm. The people were filled with apprehensions at an act, which they supposed an attack on their constitutional rights. The colonies petitioned the king and parliament for a redress of the grievance, and formed associations for the purpose of preventing the importation and use of the British manufactures, until the act should be repealed. The news of the repeal was received in the colonies with universal joy, and the trade between them and Great Britain was renewed on the most liberal footing.

The parliament, by repealing this obnoxious act, did not intend to lay aside the scheme of raising a revenue in the colonies, but merely to change the mode. Accordingly, the next year they passed an act, laying a certain duty on glass, tea, paper, and painter's colours, articles which were much wanted, and not manufactured in America. This act kindled the resentment of the Americans, and excited a general opposition to the measure, so that parliament thought proper, in 1770, to take off these duties, except three-pence a pound on tea. Yet this duty, however trifling, kept alive the jealousy of the colonists, and their opposition to parliamentary taxation continued and increased. The inconvenience of paying the duty was not the sole nor principal cause of the opposition, it was the

principle, which, once admitted, would have subjected the colonies to unlimited parliamentary taxation, without the privilege of being represented. The right, abstractly considered, was denied, and the smallest attempt to establish the claim by precedent was uniformly resisted. The Americans could not be deceived as to the views of parliament; for the repeal of the stamp act was accompanied with an unequivocal declaration, "that the parliament had a right to make laws, of sufficient validity to bind the colonies, in all cases whatsoever."

The colonies therefore entered into measures to encourage their own manufactures and home productions, and to retrench the use of foreign superfluities, while the importation of tea was prohibited. In the royal and proprietary governments, the governors and people were in a state of continual warfare. Assemblies were repeatedly called, and suddenly dissolved. While sitting, the assemblies employed all their time in stating grievances and framing remonstrances. To inflame these discontents, an act of parliament was passed, ordaining, that the governors and judges should receive their salaries of the crown, thus making them independent of the provincial assemblies, and removable only at the pleasure of the king.

The next attempt that was made on the part of the English government, to conquer the resistance of the Americans, was by passing an act, enabling the East India company to export all sorts of teas, duty free, to any place whatever. Several ships were freighted with teas, and sent to the American colonies; but the inhabitants, determined to oppose the revenue system, intimidated the factors, and, at Boston, destroyed the tea. To punish this last outrage, a bill was passed, to discontinue the landing and discharging, lading and shipping of goods, wares, and merchandizes at the town of Boston, or within the harbour.

This was followed by an act to regulate the government of Massachusett's bay, an act that ordained that American criminals might be sent to Great Britain to take their trial, and another, which enlarged the bounds of the province of Quebec, and granted many privileges to its Roman catholic inhabitants.

These strong measures did not intimidate the Americans. On the other hand, they served to confirm their former apprehensions of the evil designs of government, and to unite the colonies in their opposition. A correspondence of the opinion, with respect to the unconstitutional acts of parliament, produced an uniformity of proceedings in the colonies, in order to concert measures for the preservation of their rights. Deputies were accordingly appointed, and met at Philadelphia in the autumn of 1774.

In this first congress the proceedings were deliberate and loyal, but marked with unanimity and firmness. Their first act was a declaration or state of their claims, as to the enjoyment of all the rights of British subjects, and particularly that of taxing themselves exclusively, and of regulating the internal police of the colonies. They also drew up a petition to the king, complaining of their grievances, and praying for a repeal of the unconstitutional and oppressive acts of parliament. They signed an association to suspend the importation of British goods and the exportation of American produce, until their grievances should be redressed. They sent an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and another to the people of America; in the former of which they enumerated the oppressive acts of parliament, and called on their British brethren not to aid the ministry in

enslaving their American subjects; and in the latter they endeavoured to confirm the people in a spirited and unanimous determination to defend their constitutional rights.

In 1775 hostilities actually commenced, his majesty published a proclamation, declaring the Americans rebels, and they published an answer, avowing their allegiance. The next year, however, all reserve was dropped, and the congress declared the 13 colonies independent of their mother country, and composing one entire nation, denominated the United States.

We pass over the detail of the wars, and the aggravated atrocities wherewith its horrors were increased, and of the wretchedness and misery it induced in its progress, and its train both in the eastern and western world.

In the spring of 1782, general Carleton arrived in New York, and took the command of the British army in America; immediately on his arrival, he acquainted general Washington and congress that negociations for a peace had been commenced at Paris.

On the 30th of the 11th month, 1782, provisional articles of peace were signed at Paris, by which Great Britain acknowledged the independence and sovereignty of the United States of America; and these articles were ratified by a definitive treaty.

Thus ended a long and arduous conflict, in which Great Britain expended near a hundred millions of money, with a 100,000 lives, and won nothing. America endured every cruelty and distress, lost many lives and much treasure, but was delivered from a foreign dominion.

No sooner was the peace restored by the definitive treaty, and the British troops withdrawn from the country, than the United States began to experience the defects of their general government. While an enemy was in the country, fear, which had first impelled the colonists to associate in mutual defence, continued to operate as a band of political union. It gave to the resolutions and recommendations of congress the force of laws, and generally commanded a ready acquiescence on the part of the state legislatures. Articles of confederation and perpetual union had been framed in congress, and submitted to the consideration of the states, in 1778. Some of the states immediately acceded to them, but others, which had not unappropriated lands, hesitated to subscribe a compact, which would give an advantage to the states which possessed large tracts of unlocated lands, and were thus capable of a great superiority in wealth and population. All objections, however, had been overcome, and, by the accession of Maryland, in 1781, the articles of confederation were ratified as the frame of government for the United States.

These articles of confederation, after eleven years experience, being found inadequate to the purposes of a federal government, for reasons hereafter mentioned, delegates were chosen in each of the United States, to meet and fix upon the necessary amendments. They accordingly met in convention at Philadelphia, in the summer of 1787, and agreed to propose a new constitution for the consideration of their constituents; which was afterwards adopted.

Agreeable to this constitution, the United States are governed by a president, a senate, and a house of representatives. The president is elected for four years; he is commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion in

writing, of the principal officers in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he has power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He has power, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he nominates, and, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, appoints ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The president has power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

He, from time to time, gives to the congress information of the state of the union, and recommends to their consideration such measures as he judges necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and, in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such times as he shall think proper; he receives ambassadors and other public ministers, he takes care that the laws be faithfully executed, and commissions all the officers of the United States.

The president, vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States are to be removed from office, on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

The senate is composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof for six years, and each senator has one vote. It has the sole power of trying all impeachments.

The house of representatives is composed of members, chosen every second year by the people of the several states. All laws and regulations whatever must be enacted by these two houses, with the consent of the president; unless, after the president has refused his consent, and the bill has been reconsidered, it is approved by two-thirds of the members of each house.

The most southern of the United States is Georgia, which has a mild but unwholesome climate. The soil and fertility are various, according to its situation and different degrees of improvement. In this state are produced by culture, rice, indigo, cotton, silk (though not in large quantities), Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, pomegranates, &c. Rice at present is the staple commodity, and, as a small proportion only of the rice ground is under cultivation, the quantity raised in future must be much greater than at present. But the rapid increase of the inhabitants, chiefly by emigrations, whose attention is turned to the raising of tobacco, and the vast extent of land, with a richness of soil suited to the culture of that plant, renders it probable that tobacco will shortly become the staple of this state.

The tobacco lands are equally well adapted to wheat, which may hereafter make an important article of commerce.

The inhabitants generally wear clothes of their own manufacture.

South Carolina is also unhealthy. The country is level near the sea, but farther inland is diversified with hill and dale. Its soil is of four different kinds, one of which chiefly produces pine-trees, the second grass, the third rice, and the fourth various kinds of timber. This province has a variety of mineral productions, among which are silver and lead.

North Carolina furnishes the markets of South Carolina and Virginia with tobacco, wheat, and Indian corn. The exports of the lower parts of the state are tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, Indian corn, boards, scantling, staves, shingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and a few other articles. Their trade is chiefly with the West Indies and the northern states. From the latter they receive flour, cheese, cyder, apples, potatoes, iron wares, cabinet wares, hats, and dry goods of all kinds, imported from Great Britain, France, and Holland, teas, &c. From the West Indies, rum, sugar, and coffee.

In the flat country, near the sea-coast, the inhabitants, during the summer and autumn, are subject to intermitting fevers, which often prove mortal, as bilious or nervous symptoms prevail. These fevers are seldom immediately dangerous to the natives, who are temperate, or to strangers who are prudent.

Kentucky is a very fertile country, watered by large rivers; it is well supplied with buffaloes, and river fish of various species. The climate is accounted healthful, and its population rapidly increasing.

Virginia produces iron and coals in considerable quantities. Its climate is colder as we proceed towards the western parts of the province, till we attain the summit of the Alleganey mountains, and then from thence to the Mississippi it becomes gradually warmer. Vegetables and animals subsist in the interior which are not found on the coast.

Maryland has a mild and agreeable climate, suited to agricultural productions. In the interior hilly country the inhabitants are healthy, but in the flat country they are subject to intermitting fevers. The soil of the good land in Maryland is of such a nature and quality as to produce from 12 to 16 bushels of wheat, or from 20 to 30 bushels of Indian corn per acre. Ten bushels of wheat and 15 bushels of corn per acre may be the annual average crops in this state at large. Wheat and tobacco are the staple commodities of Maryland; and in the interior country, on the uplands, considerable quantities of hemp and flax are raised. Among other kinds of timber is the oak, of several kinds, which is of a straight grain, and easily rives into staves for exportation. The black walnut is in demand for cabinets, tables, and other furniture. The apples of this state are large, but mealy, their peaches plentiful and good. From these the inhabitants distil cyder, brandy, and peach brandy. The forests abound with nuts of various kinds, which are collectively called mast. On this mast vast numbers of swine are fed, which run wild in the woods. These swine, when fatted, are caught, killed, barrelled, and exported, in great quantities. Mines of iron ore, of a superior quality, are found in many parts of the state. Furnaces for running this ore into pigs and hollow ware, and forges to refine pig iron into bars, have been erected in a number of places in the neighbourhood of the mines. This is the only manufacture of importance carried on in the state, except it be that of wheat into flour. The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the other states, with the West Indies, and with some parts of Europe. To these places they send annually about 30,000 hogsheads of tobacco, besides large quantities of corn, beans, pork, and

flax-seed, in smaller quantities, and receive in return clothing and other dry goods, wines, spirits, sugars, and other West India commodities. The balance of trade is generally in their favour.

Delaware is a flat and unhealthy country, many parts of which are but little productive. It is most fertile in the north, where wheat is chiefly cultivated.

Pennsylvania, excepting the Allegany range of mountains, is generally level or agreeably diversified with gentle hills and vales. The soil is of various kinds, in some parts it is barren, a great proportion of the state is good land, and a considerable part is very good. Perhaps the proportion of first rate land is not greater in any of the thirteen states. The richest part of the state that is settled is Lancaster county; the richest that is unsettled is between Allegany river and lake Erie, in the north-west corner of the state. Of this fine tract, 100,000 acres, lying on and near French creek, are offered for sale by the state.

The produce consists chiefly of wheat; it is also a good grazing country. Civilization has made a greater progress in Pennsylvania than in any other of the states.

New Jersey has a great variety of soils, but is, on the whole, more barren than any other province.

New York carries on a great fur-trade with Canada, by means of the lakes. It produces much timber, but its staple commodity is wheat. There are several societies in the city of New York for promoting literature and humanity.

New England is a fine grazing country, has a variety of fruits, and produces in the interior Indian corn, rye, oats, barley, flax, and hemp, but has no staple commodity. A good fishery is carried on along its coasts. The people of New England generally obtain their estates by hard and persevering labour; they of consequence know their value, and spend with frugality; yet in no country do the indigent fare better. Their laws oblige every town to provide a competent maintenance for the poor, and the necessitous stranger is protected and relieved from their humane institutions. It is thought by some that in no part of the world the people are happier, better furnished with the necessaries and conveniences of life, or more independent than the farmers of New England. As the great body of the people are hardy and independent, their manners are congenial to their employment, plain, simple, and unpolished. Strangers are received and entertained among them with a great deal of artless sincerity, friendly, and unformal hospitality.

The Western Territory is watered by many large rivers, produces a variety of timber, and is expected to be very productive when brought under proper cultivation.

CHAPTER III.

British and Native America.——Nova Scotia, New Foundland, Canada, New Britain, Greenland, and the Western Coast.

THE continental territories of the English in America comprehend New Britain or the country of the Esquimaux, Canada or the province of Quebec, and Nova Scotia or Accadia. On the east and south they are bounded by the Atlantic and the American states; on the west and north their boundaries are undefined, and blended with the lands of Indian nations and American wilds.

Far to the north, the hardy pine tree, the only evergreen of the polar regions, is no longer seen; and the cold womb of the earth seems incapable of giving life to any other productions than a few blighted shrubs. The accumulating snows, which cover the mountains of those solitary and desert tracts, together with the winds which blow from thence near three quarters of the year, occasion a severity of cold in this part of the world, even in latitudes which are moderate and pleasant in Europe. A principal part of this extensive country lies in the same latitude with France, but its natural history nearly answers the description of Norway or Sweden. The winters are long and severe; the summers short, warm, and pleasant. In many places corn, as well as fruits, and other vegetables are produced; the meadow lands, which are well watered, yield the most luxuriant pasturage for vast numbers of great and small cattle; and tobacco in particular is much cultivated, and seems perfectly congenial to the soil. Here also are the most antient and extensive forests in the world, producing the various species of pines, firs, cedars, oaks, maple, ash, walnut, beech, elm, and poplar.

The animals of British America are also similar to those of the northern countries of Europe, as buffaloes, bears, wolves, moose-deer, stags, rein-deer, goats, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, hares, and rabbits.

Of the feathered tribe, there are numbers of eagles, falcons, gos-hawks, tercels, ravens, owls, woodcocks, snipes, blackbirds, swallows, larks, thrushes, finches, immense stock of geese, swans, ducks, cranes, bustards, partridges, and almost every species of wild fowl.

Among their reptiles, the rattle-snake is the most remarkable.

Of sea fish, there are whales, morses, sea wolves, sea cows, porpoises, cod fish, herrings, anchovies, pilchards, and various other kinds, and in the rivers and lakes there are pike, perch, carp, trout, &c.

The rivers, lakes, and bays in this part of the world are numerous, large, and deep. The rivers here, which, from their magnitude, might claim, if in other countries, particular mention, appear diminutive, if compared with the great river St. Lawrence, in which indeed many of them are ultimately absorbed. The same may be said of many capacious lakes, when compared with those inland seas, the lakes of Canada. They are five in number, the Ontario, Erie or Oswego, Huron, Michigan, and Lake Superior, the smallest of which is no less than 200 leagues in circumference, and Lake Superior, by far the most spacious, and containing several large islands, is at least 1500 miles in circuit. These lakes give

W.M.Craig del.

J.Wallis sculpt.

FALLS of NIAGARA, on the RIVER St. LAWRENCE in CANADA.

rise to several vast rivers, particularly the Mississippi, which runs from north to south, till it falls into the gulf of Mexico, after a winding course of 4500 miles, receiving in its progress the Illinois, the Missauri, the Ohio, and the other great rivers, scarcely inferior to the Rhine or the Danube; and on the north the great river St. Lawrence, which runs a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean, near Newfoundland, after receiving the Outawais, the Champlain, Trois Rivieres, Despaires, Seguinay, St. John's and several other rivers, and becoming, at its mouth, about 90 miles wide. All these lakes are navigable by the largest vessels, and have a communication with each other; except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a stupendous fall or cataract, called the falls of Niagara. Where the rock crosses, it is about half a mile broad, and, from the bend of the cliff, describes a crescent; when it comes to the perpendicular form, which is 150 feet, words cannot express the sensations occasioned by seeing such a vast body of water violently thrown down from so amazing an elevation, on the rocks below, on which it again rebounds to a great height, and from its being converted into foam by these violent agitations, appears as white snow. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of 15 miles, and sometimes much farther, and the vapour arising from it, which resembles a cloud or pillar of smoke, may also be seen at a very considerable distance, and it is variegated like the rainbow, whenever the sun and the position of the traveller are proper for producing that phenomenon. Beasts and fowls frequently lose their lives in attempting to swim across, and are found dashed to pieces below; and sometimes Indians, either through carelessness or inebriety, meet the same tremendous fate; which circumstance draws great numbers of birds of prey to the place, to feed on the dead bodies.

New Britain, which is commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehends Labrador, New North and South Wales. Our first knowledge of this part of the world originated from a project stated in England, for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies. Forbisher, and after him Davis, were the first adventurers in this hardy navigation, and the straits which they discovered still bear their names. Early in the 17th century, Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure; he entered the straits which lead into that immense bay, which, together with the straits, still bear his name, he coasted a great part of this New Mediterranean, and penetrated as far as 80° into the heart of the frozen zone, but was at last, with seven of his faithful adherents, committed by the crew, in an open boat, to the perils of the icy seas; these hardy adventurers were never more heard of, but the crew returned to Europe. The last discoveries of Cook seem to prove that this much desired navigation is altogether impracticable.

The Hudson's bay company employ four ships and 300 seamen; they have four forts, viz. Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the western shore of the bay, and [illegible] with the Indians for furs a[illegible] these uncultivated people, and the most trifling goods find a ready market; on the other hand, the skins and furs enter largely into English manufactures, and afford materials for opening a beneficial commerce with several European nations.

The only towns of importance in Canada are Quebec, Trois Rivieres, and Montreal, all situated on the river St. Lawrence, by means of which an extensive commerce is

carried on, employing about 60 ships and 1000 seamen annually, though it is much interrupted by the severe winters, when the largest of the rivers are frozen over, and ports consequently blocked up. Their exports are skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, cappillaire, wheat, &c.; their imports the manufactures of Europe, and the produce of the West Indian islands.

Near Quebec is a fine lead mine; the whole country abounds in coals, and it is asserted that silver is found in the mountains.

The inhabitants of Nova Scotia export all sorts of lumber, such as planks, staves, hoops, and joists, together with immense quantities of fish; the latter indeed is their staple commodity, and employs a great number of hands; their imports are the produce of the West Indian islands and the commodities of Europe.

The principal towns in Nova Scotia are Halifax, on Chebucto bay, Annapolis, on Fundy bay, St. John's, on the mouth of a river of the same name; but the most recent establishment, and which bids fair to become the most opulent, is that of Shelburne town, founded by the American loyalists or refugees.

The islands of New Foundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, lie at the mouth of the great St. Lawrence river, and are celebrated for the prodigious shoals of fish that surround their coasts. The forests are extensive, and the animals various and many. Newfoundland is watered by many spacious rivers, and furnished with several large and excellent harbours. About 15,000 Europeans constantly reside on the island. The chief towns are Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John. The Indians or natives are said to be a gentle, mild, and tractable people, easily gained by civility and good usage. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, frequently with storms of snow and sleet, and the beauties of a serene sky are seldom beheld in this island. The soil on most parts of the island is rocky and barren, but in some of the valleys on the southern coast deep and rich. The vegetable productions are but few; a kind of wild rye is found in some of the valleys, strawberries and rasberries are found in the woods, which also supply a variety of excellent timber. But the island is chiefly valued for its great cod-fishery, on those shoals called the banks of Newfoundland. In this branch of commerce upwards of 3000 sail of small craft are annually employed; on board of which, as well as on shore, for the purpose of curing and packing the fish, upwards of 10,000 hands are employed. This fishery is supposed to increase the national stock upwards of 300,000*l.* annually, which is remitted to England in gold and silver, for cod sold in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant.

Very profitable fisheries are likewise carried on along the coasts of New Scotland, New England, and the Isle of Cape Breton.

West Greenland lies in north latitude, higher than 60°, and between 25° and 50° of west longitude, and is peopled, though but thinly.

The Greenlanders resemble the Laplanders and other inhabitants of the north, in their being addicted to superstition, and their extreme dread of thunder. Their strength and agility is astonishing; after enduring hunger for several days, in their little kajaks or boats, they will ride out a storm, where an European boat could not live. The kajak is principally formed of laths and hoops, and covered with seal-skins, both above and below; it is of the form of a weaver's shuttle, and six yards in length; in the middle is a hole, into which the Greenlander slips his feet, and sits down; he tucks the under part of his water-

pelt or great coat round the rim or hoop at the hole, that the water cannot penetrate. He has his line coiled up before him, and his harpoons and lances at hand, which are very ingeniously contrived, and curiously made, for striking the seals; but it is with his pantik or oar that he navigates his little vessel; this he lays hold of, with both his hands, by the middle, and, with great regularity and quickness, strikes the water on both sides, and rows along with great velocity. He darts over the boisterous billows like an arrow; if a wave break over him, he is presently again skimming along the surface; if he be overturned, and his head be directly downwards, with a swing of his pantik he recovers his former station; but if he lose this, he is commonly lost himself. It is on this trying occasion he creeps out of his kajak, and cries aloud for help; if none be at hand, to come to his assistance, he binds himself to his boat, that his body may be found and interred. Their umiaks or women's boats are similarly formed, but large and open at top; these are rowed by the women, but the men, in their kajaks at hand, shelter it from the greatest waves, and, in case of need, lay hold of the gunnel with their hands, to keep it on a balance; they coast along in these boats, voyages from two to four leagues, with their furniture and subsistence, at the rate of 12 leagues a day. At every night's lodging, they unload, pitch their tents, drag their boat ashore, turn it upside down, and load the beam fore and aft with stones, that the wind may not blow it away. If at any time the coast will not permit them to pass, six or eight of them take the boat on their heads, and convey it over land to a more favourable water.

These people change their habitations according to the season, living in houses in winter, in summer in tents. Their houses are built with stones and sods, these are roofed with beams and rafters, and small wood between them, and over these are laid bushes and turf, and fine earth on the top. They have neither door nor chimney; the use of both these is supplied by a vaulted passage, four or six yards long, entering the middle of the house in the front; this is so low that they must nearly creep on their hands and feet, especially when they step down into the passage, either from within or without. The walls are hung on the inside with old skins, to keep out the damp; the roof on the outside is covered with them also. From the middle, all along one side of the house, there is a bench of board, raised about a foot high, and covered with them also. From the middle, all along one side of the house, there is a bench of boards, raised about a foot high, and covered with skin; this is divided into small apartments, resembling horses' stalls, by skins, stretching from the wall to the posts that support the roof in the middle; each family has a stall, and the number of families in one house is from three to ten. On these floors they sleep, upon pelts; they also sit on them, the men foremost, with their legs hanging down, carving their tackle and tools, the women behind them, minding their sewing, these also cook their victuals. Opposite to them, on the front of the house, are windows, made of the intestines of seals and halibuts' maws, and sewed so neat and tight that the wind and snow are kept out, while the light is let in. A bench runs along under the windows, the whole length of the house, in which strangers sit and sleep. By every post there is a fire-place, of a curious and simple kind, for the use of each family; it is nothing more than a lamp, hewn out of a kind of chalk or soft marble. They fill it with oil of seals, and use fine moss instead of cotton; over this they boil their meat, in a sort of kettle, of the same substance with their lamp; over all they fasten a wooden rack, on which they

lay their wet clothes and boots to dry; and, during their dark and tedious winter, the lamps sufficiently enlighten the house, and warm it very equally.

On the coming on of the spring, when the snow begins to melt, and threaten to run through the roof, they move out of these huts, rejoicing, to spend the summer in tents. Their tents are framed with poles, and covered with skins; the order of them is much the same as that of the houses, but they are much more cleanly, and in these they endeavour to display some finery and taste. On occasion of a visit, the guests or visitors are welcomed with singing, and presented with a soft pelt to sit upon; the men talk very gravely and considerately of the weather, of hunting and fishing; the women first mutually bewail their deceased relations, with an harmonious howl, and then divert themselves with little stories; mean while the horn, with the snuff, goes constantly round; when the banquet is brought in, the guests let the host press them often, they pretend indifference about it, lest they should appear poor or half-starved.

Through the labours of the Danish missionaries, and more especially of those of the Moravians or Brethren's Unity, several congregations have been gathered from the gross superstitions of the country to the profession of Christianity. The Copenhagen company engross the little trade of this country, and give cloths, cutlery, and various domestic utensils, in copper, brass, and tin, for whale-blubber, furs, &c.

The western coast of America has inhabitants, who appear to be of the same race with the Esquimaux or Greenlanders. They were visited by the late captain Cook, who discovered, among other places, Nootka sound, in latitude 49° 36', and prince William's Sound considerable further to the north. Along this coast are found several animals which produce very valuable furs. It is now certain that a north-west passage to India and China is utterly impracticable.

VIEW OF THE WORLD.

BOOK XV.

The Islands in the Pacific Ocean.

CHAPTER I.

Northern Archipelago, Sandwich Islands, Marquæsas, Otaheite, Society Islands, Friendly Islands, New Hebrides, New Caledonia, New Zealand, New Guinea, New Holland, Conclusion.

THE Northern Archipelago consists of several groups of islands, between Kamptschatka and North America. Some of them are only inhabited occasionally, and for some months in the year; some are very thinly peopled, but others are pretty populous. The inhabitants are in general of short stature, and very strong and active.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders; they have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments; they live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same islands always account themselves of the same race, and each looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests, beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feasts. Hunting and fishing form a principal business of their lives; they seem cool in their tempers, but when aroused are very violent; like the Japanese, they seem not to have an abhorrence of suicide, but sometimes put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

The Sandwich Islands were among the last discoveries of captain Cook, who so named them in honour of the earl of Sandwich, under whose administration these discoveries were made. They consist in 11 islands, extending in latitude from 18° 54 to 22° 15′ north; and in longitude from 150° 54′ to 160° 24′ west. They are called by the natives Owhyhee, Mowee, Ranai, Morotoi, Tahoorowa, Woakoo, Atooi, Necheeheow, Oreehoua, Morocttone, and Tahoora, all inhabited except the two last. The climate of these islands differs very little from that of the West Indies, the same in latitude, though perhaps more temperate; and there are no traces of those violent winds and hurricanes which render

the stormy months in the West Indies so dreadful. There is also more rain at the Sandwich Isles, where the mountainous parts being generally enveloped in a cloud, successive showers fall in the inland parts, with fine weather and a clear sky on the sea-shore. Hence it is that few of those inconveniences to which many tropical countries are subject, either from heat or moisture, are experienced here. The winds in the winter months are generally from east-south-east to north-east. The vegetable productions are nearly the same as those of the other islands in this ocean; but the taro root is here of a superior quality. The bread-fruit trees thrive not here in such abundance as in the rich plains of Otaheite, but produce double the quantity of fruit; the sugar-canes are of a very unusual size, some of them measuring eleven inches and a quarter in circumference, and have 14 feet eatable; there is also a root of brown colour, shaped like a yam, and from six to ten pounds in weight, the juice of which is very sweet, of a pleasant taste, and is an excellent substitute for sugar. The quadrupeds are confined to the three usual sorts, hogs, dogs, and rats. The fowls are also of the common sort, and the birds are beautiful and numerous, though not various. Goats, pigs, and European seeds were left by captain Cook, but the possession of the goats soon gave rise to a contest between two districts, in which the breed was entirely destroyed. The inhabitants are undoubtedly of the same race that possesses the islands south of the equator, and in their persons, language, customs, and manners, approach nearer to the New Zealanders than to their less distant neighbours, either of the Society or Friendly Islands. They are in general about the middle size, and well made, they walk very gracefully, run nimbly, and are capable of bearing very great fatigue. Many of both sexes have fine open countenances, and the women in particular have good eyes and teeth, with a sweetness and sensibility of look that render them very engaging. There is one peculiarity, characteristic of every part of these islands, that even in the handsomest faces there is a fulness of the nostril, without any flatness or spreading of the nose. They suffer their beards to grow, and wear their hair after various fashions: the dress of both men and women nearly resemble those of New Zealand, and both sexes wear necklaces of small variegated shells; tattowing the body is practised by every colony of this nation; the hands and the arms of the women are also very neatly marked, and they have the singular custom of tattowing the tip of the tongue. Like the New Zealanders, they have adopted the method of living together in villages, containing from 100 to 200 houses, built pretty closely together, without any order, without having a winding path between them: they are generally flanked towards the sea with detached walls, which are meant both for shelter and defence; these walls consist of loose stones, and the inhabitants are very dextrous in shifting them suddenly to such places as the direction of the attack may require. In the sides of the hills or surrounding eminences they have also holes or caves, the entrance to which is also secured by a fence of the same kind; they serve for places of retreat in cases of extremity, and may be defended by a single person against many assailants. Their houses are of different sizes, some of them large and commodious, from 40 to 50 feet long, and from 20 to 30 broad, while others are mere hovels. The food of the lower class consists principally of fish and vegetables, to which the people of higher rank add the flesh of dogs and hogs. The manner of spending their time admits of little variety; they rise with the sun, and, after enjoying the cool of the evening, retire to rest, a few hours after sun-set: the making of canoes, mats,

&c. forms the occupation of the men; the women are employed in manufacturing cloth, and their servants are principally engaged in the plantations and fishing; their idle hours are filled up with various amusements, such as dancing, boxing, and wrestling. Their agriculture and navigation bear a great resemblance to those of the South Sea islands; their plantations, which are spread over the whole sea-coast, consist of the taro ar eddy-root, and sweet potatoes, with plants of the cloth-tree set in rows. The bottoms of their canoes are of a single piece of wood, hollowed out to the thickness of an inch, and brought up to a point at each end; the sides consist of three boards, each about an inch thick, neatly fitted, and lashed to the bottom part; some of their double canoes measure 70 feet in length, three and a half in depth, and twelve in breadth: their cordage, fish-hooks, and fishing tackle differ but little from those of the other islands. Among their arts must not be forgotten that of making salt, which they have in great abundance and of a good quality. Their instruments of war are spears, daggers, clubs, and slings; and for defensive armour they wear strong mats, which are not easily penetrated by such weapons as theirs. As the islands are not united under one sovereign, wars are frequent among them, which, no doubt, contribute greatly to reduce the number of inhabitants, which, according to the proportion assigned to each island, does not exceed 400,000. The same system of subordination prevails here as at the other islands, the same absolute authority on the part of the chiefs, and the same unresisting submission on the part of the people; the government is likewise monarchial and hereditary. At Owhyhee there is a regular society of priests, living by themselves, and distinct, in all respects, from the rest of the people. Human sacrifices are here frequent, not only at the commencement of a war, or any signal enterprise, but the death of every considerable chief calls for a repetition of these horrid rites.

The Marqueasas are five in number, viz. La Magdalena, St. Pedro, La Dominica, Santa Christina, and Hood Island. The inhabitants of these islands collectively, says captain Cook, are, without exception, the finest race of people in the South sea. For symmetry of shape and regular features, they, perhaps, surpass all other nations. Not a single deformed or ill-proportioned person was seen on the island; all were strong, tall, well-limbed, and remarkably active: the men are about five feet ten or six feet high; their teeth are not so good, nor are their eyes so full and lively, as those of many other nations; the hair is of many colours, but none red, some have it long, but the most general custom is to wear it short, except a bunch on each side the crown, which they tie in a knot; their countenances are pleasing, open, and full of vivacity; they are of a tawny complexion, which is rendered almost black by punctures over the whole body; they were entirely naked, except a small piece of cloth round their waist and loins.

The principal head-dress used in the islands, and what appears to be their chief ornament, is a sort of broad fillet, curiously made of the fibres of the husks of cocoa-nuts; in the front is fixed a mother-of-pearl shell, wrought round to the size of a tea-saucer, before that another smaller, of fine tortoise-shell, perforated into curious figures, also before, in the centre of that, is another round piece of mother-of-pearl, about the size of half-a-crown, and before this another piece of perforated tortoise-shell, the size of a shilling. Besides this decoration in front, some have it also on each side, but in small pieces, and all have fixed to them the tail feathers of cocks or tropic birds, which, when the fillet is tied on,

stand upright, so that the whole together makes a very sprightly ornament. They wear round the neck a kind of ruff or necklace, made of light wood, the outward and upper sides covered with small peas, which are fixed on with gum; they also wear some bunches of human hair, fastened to a string, and tied round their legs and arms. But all the above ornaments are seldom seen on the same person.

Their weapons were all made of the club-wood or casuarina, and were either plain spears, about eight or ten feet long, or clubs, which commonly had a knob at one end; they have also slings, with which they throw stones, with great velocity and to a great distance, but not with a good aim.

The language of these people is much nearer to that of Otaheite than any other dialect in the South sea, except that they could not pronounce the letter r.

The only quadrupeds seen here were hogs, except rats; here were fowls, and several small birds in the woods, whose notes were very melodious. The chief difference between the inhabitants of the Marquesas and those of the Society Islands seems to consist in their different degrees of cleanliness; the former do not bathe two or three times a-day, nor wash their hands and face before and after every meal, as the latter do, and they are besides very slovenly in the manner of preparing their meals. Their diet is chiefly vegetable, though they have hogs and fowls, and catch abundance of fish at certain times; their drink is pure water, cocoa-nuts being scarce here.

The inhabitants of the Marquesas, as well as of most of the South sea islands, are much addicted to pilfering. A fruitless attempt has lately been made by the missionary society, to introduce the gospel among them.

Otaheite is a celebrated island in the South sea, discovered by captain Wallis in 1767, several times visited by captain Cook, and now become well known to the Europeans, since it has been, for several years past, the constant residence of several missionaries. It is composed of two peninsulas, united by a narrow neck of land. The country has a delightful romantic appearance; the coast, viewed from the sea, presents a most beautiful prospect, being elevated like an amphitheatre; the island is skirted with a reef of rocks, and towards the sea is level, being covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, particularly the cocoa-nut. At the distance of about three miles from the shore, the country rises into lofty hills, that are covered with wood, and terminate in peaks, from which large rivers are precipitated into the sea. The stones every where appear to have been burnt; so that there is great reason to suppose that this and the neighbouring islands are either the shattered remains of a continent, or were torn from rocks which were formerly the bed of the sea.

The air is healthy and pleasant, and the heat not extremely troublesome; the soil is a rich black earth, which produces spontaneously, or with very slight culture, bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, bananas of 13 sorts, plantains, potatoes, yams, sugar-canes, turmeric, and several trees and shrubs, which have only Otaheitan names. They have domestic poultry, exactly resembling those of Europe, beside wild ducks and several sorts of pigeons, yet the common people live chiefly on vegetable diet. They have also several species of song-birds, but no quadrupeds, unless dogs, hogs, and rats, nor any frogs, toads, serpents, or scorpions.

The inhabitants, are stout, well made, active, and comely, and the women are accounted

beautiful. Both sexes have a custom of staining their bodies, which they call tattowing; both men and women have the hinder part of their thighs and loins marked very thick with black lines, in various forms; these lines are made by striking the teeth of an instrument, somewhat like a comb, just through the skin, and rubbing into the punctures a kind of paste, made of soot and oil, which leaves an indelible stain. Their dress consists of two pieces of cloth, one of them, having a hole in the middle, to put the head through, hangs from the shoulders to the mid leg, before and behind; another piece, which is between four and five yards long, and about one yard broad, they wrap round the body in a very easy manner; this cloth is not woven, but is made like paper, of the macerated fibres of the inner bark, spread out and beaten together; their ornaments are feathers, flowers, pieces of shell, and pearls; the pearls are worn chiefly by the women. In wet weather they wear matting of different kinds, as their cloth will not bear wetting. The dress of the better sort of women consists of three or four pieces, one piece, about two yards wide and eleven long, they wrap several times round the waist, so as to hang down like a petticoat, as low as the middle of the leg, and this they called parou. Their houses are no other than a roof, not quite four feet from the ground, raised on three rows of pillars, and thatched with palm-leaves; the floor of their dwelling is covered with hay, over which they spread mats; they are sometimes furnished with blocks of wood, serving equally for stools and pillows.

They are very ingenious in manufacturing their cloth and mats, and in constructing their canoes; the tools used by the Otaheitans are adzes made of stone, a chisel or gouge made of bone, generally the bone of a man's arm, between the wrist and elbow, a rasp of coral, and the skin of a sting ray; also coral and sand, as a file or polisher, and with these they fell timber, cleave and polish it, and hew stone. Their language is soft and melodious, abounding with vowels, and easy to be pronounced. Their manners are extremely depraved, especially those of a society called Arreoys. They have of late suffered severely from a certain disease introduced among them by European mariners, so that their population is very rapidly diminishing. Several missionaries have laboured among them for the last seven or eight years, without much success.

The Society isles, a cluster of isles, so named by captain Cook, in 1769, are situated between the latitudes of 16° 10′ and 16° 55′ south, and between the longitudes of 150° 57 and 152 west. They are seven in number, beside Otaheite, namely, Huahine, Ulietea, Otaha, Bolabola, Maurua, Toobonai, and Tabooyamanoo, or Saunder's island. The soil, productions, people, their language, religion, customs, and manners, are so nearly the same as at Otaheite, that little need be added here on that subject. Nature has been equally bountiful in uncultivated plenty, and the inhabitants are as luxurious and as indolent. A plantain branch is the emblem of peace, and exchanging names the greatest token of friendship. Their dances are more elegant, their dramatic entertainments have something of plot and consistency, and they exhibit temporary occurrences as the objects of praise or satire, so that the origin of antient comedy may be already discerned among them.

The Friendly islands were so named by captain Cook in 1773; but three of them were discovered by Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, in 1643. They are in general highly cultivated, and well stocked with such roots and fruits as the islands afford. The men are well

made, and exhibit all the appearance of strength, but the women are more delicately formed. The dress of both sexes is the same, and consists of a piece of cloth or matting (but mostly the former), about two yards wide, and two and a half long, at least so long as to go once and a half round the waist, to which it is confined by a girdle or cord. It is double before, and hangs down like a petticoat, as low as the middle of the leg; the upper part of the garment, above the girdle, is plaited into several folds, so that, when unfolded, there is cloth sufficient to draw up, and wrap round the shoulders, which is very seldom done: the inferior sort are satisfied with small pieces, and very often wear nothing but a covering made of leaves of plants, or the maro, which is a narrow piece of cloth or matting, like a sash; this they pass between the thighs, and wrap round the waist, but the use of it is chiefly confined to the men. The ornaments worn by both sexes are necklaces made of the fruit of the pandanus, and various sweet smelling flowers, which go under the general name of kahulla. Others are composed of small shells, the wing and leg bones of birds, sharks' teeth, and other things; all which hang loose upon the breast; rings of tortoise-shell on the fingers, and a number of these joined together are bracelets on the wrists; the lobes of the ears (though most frequently only one) are sometimes perforated with two holes in which they wear cylindrical bits of ivory, about three inches long.

In the structure of their houses, their diet, their tools, and their ingenuity in using them, they have a considerable resemblance to the inhabitants of Otaheite.

The New Hebrides were some of them discovered by Quiros, in 1606, but were first thoroughly explored by captain Cook. They differ considerably from each other, but are in general covered with wood, but where they are properly cultivated appear to be fertile; they afford a plenty of hogs and poultry. The inhabitants, especially those of Mallicollo, are very ugly, and of a darker complexion than most of the South sea islanders; they wear but little covering, except the women, who have a kind of petticoat; the people of Mallicollo wear a tight ligature round their bodies, which makes them appear mis-shapen: their weapons are bows, arrows, and clubs; their arrows are supposed to be poisoned: they discovered the greatest sharpness of capacity in acquiring English words, and pronouncing the most difficult sounds in the European languages.

New Caledonia is about 80 leagues long and 10 broad; it is diversified by barren mountains and fertile valleys, which are well cultivated. Here are a great variety of birds, most of which were unknown till this island was discovered. The inhabitants are very stout, tall, and in general well proportioned; their features mild, their beards and hair black, and strongly frizzled; so as to be somewhat woolly in some individuals, their colour swarthy, or a dark chesnut brown. They make use of a kind of comb, made of sticks of hard wood, from seven to ten inches long, and about the thickness of a knitting-needle, fastened together at one end, and at the other end pointed; these combs they always wear in their hair, on one side of the head. Their only covering was a coarse piece of cloth, made of the bark of a fig-tree, and coarse garments of matting, which they wear when unemployed. Their women, who are in a state of servility, are of a dark complexion and clumsy form; their dress is a short petticoat, consisting of little cords, about eight inches long, which are fastened to a very long string, and tied several times round their waist. Their houses are circular, like a bee-hive, and are entered by a very

small door. The New Caledonians appear to be a harmless, good-natured people, though furnished with offensive weapons, they seem to be more honest and chaste than the inhabitants of most of the South sea islands.

New Zealand, which consists of two islands, is inhabited by a race of men, who seem to have made considerable progress in the arts of life; they have contrived to build themselves stately canoes, though they are destitute of the use of metals, and are so expert in erecting their habitations on shore, that, in the space of half an hour, they can clear the ground of the shrubbery with which it was embarrassed, and build on it a town of their huts. They have regular fortifications to flee to, built on the tops of their hills, or entrenched on the lower grounds; they display the most implacable ferocity, giving no quarter to their enemies, and feeding upon the slain. They have a little tillage, and fish with large nets, which are the common property of a township. Their fondness for carving, and dexterity in that art, appear as well in their curious tattowing of their faces, as the manner of ornamenting their canoes, and different utensils or weapons. There is a certain etiquette or decorum of manners observed among them; they join their noses together by way of salute; they are kind and hospitable to travelling strangers; they wear clothes, and the women are distinguishable from the men by their lower garments being always fast girt about them. This country is hilly, and covered with grand forests. Its animals are rats and a kind of fox-dog.

New Guinea is a long and narrow island, very imperfectly known, though discovered as early as 1529. Its inhabitants have the same appearance as the New Hollanders, whom we shall speedily describe. The land here is very low, as on every other part of the coast; but it is covered with a luxuriance of wood and herbage that can scarcely be conceived. Here the cocoa-nut, plaintain, and bread-fruit flourish in the highest perfection.

New Holland was formerly considered as one large island, but is now known to consist of two. It is therefore now proper to distinguish the western part of New Holland from the eastern, or New South Wales. Our description will principally refer to the latter. The quadrupeds hitherto discovered in this country are principally of the opossum kind, of which the most remarkable is the kangaroo. Here are many beautiful birds, among which the principal are the black swan, the cassowary, and the ostrich. But the most remarkable animal yet discovered is denominated the duck's bill, bearing a resemblance to beast, bird, and fish.

The climate of these islands appears not to be disagreeable, notwithstanding the violent complaints which some have made about it; the heat has never been excessive in summer, nor is the cold intolerable in winter. Storms of thunder and lightning are frequent; but these are common to all warm countries; and it has been supposed (though upon what foundation does not well appear) that, were the country cleared of wood and inhabited, these would, in a great measure cease. A shock of an earthquake has likewise been felt, but these natural calamities are incident to some of the finest countries in the world. It is not known whether there are any volcanoes or not.

The inhabitants of New Holland are, by all accounts, represented as the most miserable and savage race of mortals perhaps existing on the face of the earth: they go entirely naked, and though pleased at first with some ornaments which were given them, they

soon threw away as useless. It does not appear, however, that they are insensible of the benefits of clothing, or of some of the conveniences which their neighbours are in possession of. Some of them, whom the colonists partly clothed, seemed to be pleased with the comfortable warmth they derived from it, and they all express a great desire for the iron tools which they see their neighbours make use of. Their colour, in the opinion of captain Cook, is rather a deep chocolate than a full black; but the filth with which their skins are covered prevents the true colour of them from appearing.

Notwithstanding their disregard for European finery, they are fond of adorning, or rather deforming, their bodies with scars; so that some of them cut the most hideous figure that can be imagined. The scars themselves have an uncommon appearance. Some of them perforate the cartilege of the nose, and thrust a large bone through it, an hideous kind of ornament, humourously called by the sailors their sprit-sail yard. Their hair is generally so much clotted with the red gum already mentioned, that they resemble a mop: they also paint themselves with various colours, like most other savages; they will also sometimes ornament themselves with beads and shells, but make no use of the beautiful feathers procurable from the birds of the country. Most of the men want one of the fore teeth in the upper jaw, a circumstance mentioned by Dampier and other navigators; and this also appears to be a badge of honour among them. It is very common among the women to cut off the two lower joints of the little finger, which, considering the clumsiness of the amputating instruments they possess, must certainly be a very painful operation: this was at first supposed to be peculiar to the married women, or those who had borne children; but some of the oldest women were found without this distinction, while it was observed in others who were very young.

The New Hollanders appear extremely deficient in the useful arts. Of the cultivation of the ground they have no notion, nor can they even be prevailed upon to eat bread or dressed meat. Hence they depend entirely for subsistence on the fruits and roots they can gather, with the fish they catch. Governor Philip also mentions their frequent setting fire to the grass, in order to drive out the opossums and other animals from their retreats; and we have already taken notice of their using decoys for quails. As all these resources, however, must be at best precarious, it is no wonder that they are frequently distressed for provisions. Thus, in the summer time, they would eat neither the shark nor sting-ray; but in winter any thing was acceptable. A young whale being driven ashore, was quickly cut in pieces, and carried off; they broiled it only enough to scorch the outside, and in this raw state they eat all their fish. They broil also the fern root, and another whose species is unknown. Among the fruits used by them is a kind of wild fig, and they eat also the kernels of a fruit resembling the pine-apple. The principal part of their subsistence, however, is fish; and when these happened to be scarce, they were wont to watch the opportunity when the colonists hauled the seine, and often seized the whole, though a part had formerly been offered or given them. They sometimes strike the fish from the canoes with their spears, sometimes catch them with hooks, and also make use of nets, contrary to the assertion of Dr. Hawkesworth, who says that none of these are to be met with among them. Their nets are generally made of the fibres of the flax-plant, with very little preparation, and are strong and heavy, the lines of which they are composed twisted like whip-cord. Some of them, however, appear to be made

of the fur of an animal, and others of cotton. The meshes of their nets are made of very large loops, artificially inserted into each other, but without any knots. Their hooks are made of the inside of a shell, very much resembling mother-of-pearl. The canoes in which they fish are nothing more than large pieces of bark, tied up at both ends with vines; and considering the slight texture of these vessels, we cannot but admire the dexterity with which they are managed, and the boldness with which they venture in them out to sea. They generally carry fire along with them in these canoes, to dress their fish when caught. When fishing with the hook, if the fish appears too strong to be drawn ashore by the line, the canoe is paddled to the shore, and while one man gently draws the fish along, another stands ready to strike it with a spear, in which he generally succeeds. There is no good reason for supposing them to be cannibals, and they never eat animal substances but raw, or next to it. Some of their vegetables are poisonous when raw, but deprived of this property when boiled. A convict unhappily experienced this, by eating them in an unprepared state; in consequence of which he died in 24 hours.

The huts of these savages are formed in the most rude and barbarous manner that can be imagined. They consist only of pieces of bark, laid together in the form of an oven, open at one end, and very low, though long enough for a man to lie at full length. There is reason, however, to believe that they depend less on them for shelter, than on the caverns with which the rocks abound. They go invariably naked, as has already been observed; though we must not imagine that the custom of going naked inures them so to the climate, as to make them insensible to the injuries of the weather. The colonists have repeated opportunities of observing this, by seeing them shivering with cold in the winter time, or huddling together in heaps in their huts or in caverns, till a fire could be kindled to warm them. It is probable, however, notwithstanding their extreme barbarity, that some knowledge of the arts will soon be introduced among them, as some have been seen attentively considering the utensils and conveniences of the Europeans, with a view, seemingly, of making similar improvements of their own. It has also been observed, that, in some things, they possess a very great power of imitation. They can imitate the songs and language of the Europeans almost instantaneously, much better than the latter can imitate theirs by long practice. This talent for imitation is also discernable in their sculptures, representing men and other animals every where met with on the rocks, which, though rude, are very surprising, for people who have not the knowledge even of constructing habitations in the least comfortable for themselves, or even clothes to preserve them from the cold.

This country has now become an object of more consequence than formerly, by reason of the establishment of a British colony in it, where the criminals condemned to be transported are sent to pass their time of servitude. Before this plan was resolved on by government, another had been discussed, viz. that of employing these criminals in workhouses; and Judge Blackstone, with Mr. Eden and Mr. Howard, had considered of the best method of putting it in execution; but though this plan had been approved by parliament, as early as in 1779, some difficulties always occurred, which prevented its going forward, and at length, on the sixth of December 1786, orders were issued by his majesty in council, for making a settlement on New Holland, establishing a court of judicature in the colonies, and other regulations on the occasion. The whole received the complete

and arrived at New Holland on the 3d of January, 1788. It was at first intended to establish the colony near Botany Bay, but Port Jackson being found situation, the country round it was destined for the first place of settlement. Here a town has been erected, which is denominated Sydney Cove, and considered as the capital. At first the settlers laboured under various difficulties, but they have now succeeded so far as to obtain a large supply of necessaries. Several causes, however, yet remain, which must operate to prevent New South Wales from obtaining any very distinguished place among the British colonies. These are the want of men, of respectable persons, well skilled in agriculture, of some staple commodity for exportation, which may enable the settlers to procure European goods, and the general depravity of manners, which, as must be expected, is to be found in a place where so large a number of the inhabitants have been expelled from their native country for nefarious practices.

Whoever has surveyed with attention the history of nations, and compared those advantages which might have been derived from the globe we inhabit, with those which have been actually enjoyed by its inhabitants, must be impressed with this melancholy truth, that man has ever been the worst foe of man. The energies of the human mind have been more usually employed in the pursuit of such projects as entail misery on our fellow creatures, than in those which tend to ameliorate their condition; and it is only by the diffusion of those principles of benevolence and virtue, which are inculcated by our holy religion, that a period will be put to the desolating influence of war; and the human species, instead of being the most miserable, become the most happy of those beings, which the Almighty has destined to inhabit the earth.

FINIS.

CATALOGUE

OF THE

PLATES,

BELONGING TO THE

GENERAL VIEW OF THE WORLD,

WITH

DIRECTIONS TO THE BINDER,

AND

DESCRIPTIONS OF THE MOST REMARKABLE.

FRONTISPIECE to face the title-page of vol. i.

In this plate Britannia and the four quarters of the world are exhibited as surveying their several pretensions to the terraqueous globe. Of these personages Britannia is the most conspicuous, as denoting the high station of the British empire in arts, in commerce, and in war. On her Europe is leaning for support, while she is giving system to the rest of the world. On the right hand sits an Asiatic in full dress, displaying, by his air and attidue, that apathy which is so congenial to the inhabitants of the east. The African, seated on the ground, half naked, but leaning on several valuable tusks of ivory, displays at once the servile and uncivilized condition of his countrymen, and the natural riches of the region they inhabit. America, armed with the war-axe, and dressed partly, and equipped partly in the native, and partly in the European stile, exhibits an emblematical representation of that hemisphere, where European manners are gradually obtaining the ascendancy.

Map of the world, to face page 1 of Introduction.

A table, exhibiting a view of the solar system, to face page 14 of Introduction.

Map of Europe, to face vol. i. page 1.

Map of Asia, to face vol. i. page 39.

Part of the natural history of Asia, to face vol. i. page 39.

The tiger appears sometimes larger, and sometimes less than the lion. Its head is large and roundish, and the ears are short, and at a great distance from each other. The form of the body has a great resemblance to that of the panther; the skin is of a darkish yellow colour, striped with long black streaks; the hair is short, excepting on the sides of the head, where it is about four inches long; the point of the tail is black, and the rest of it is interspersed with black rings; his legs and claws resemble those of the lion, only the legs are much shorter in proportion to the size of the animal. The tiger is more ferocious and cruel than the lion. Although gorged with carnage, his thirst for blood is not appeased; he seizes and tears in pieces a new prey, with equal fury and rapacity, the very moment after devouring a former one; he lays waste the country he inhabits; he neither dreads the aspect nor the weapons of man; puts to death whole troops of domestic animals; and attacks young elephants, rhinoceroses, and sometimes even braves the lion himself. He lies in wait on the banks of rivers, where other animals repair to drink; he is said to be peculiar to Asia, and is the largest and most cruel in India and its Islands.

An account of that most singular and valuable animal, the rein-deer, may be found in vol. i. from page 593 to 597.

The toucan, which is perched on a branch of the tree, is chiefly remarkable for the size of its beak, which is about six inches and a half in length, though the bird is but little larger than a jackdaw. It is perfectly harmless, and easily tamed, when it will leap up and down in the house, wag the tail, and cry with a voice resembling that of a magpie. It lives upon a vegetable diet, and is very partial to grapes. It will dart its tongue five or six inches from its beak, and employ it both in providing food and in building its nest.

Near the toucan is seated the long tailed paroquet, of which there are many beautiful species in Asia and America.

There are eight different species of the birds of paradise; the largest is found in New Guinea and some of the East India islands, and it is about two feet four inches in length: they are unable to fly with the wind, but are obliged to make their course directly against it; they have great difficulty in rising from the ground, and travel in large flocks, under the guidance of a bird, which is called the king. The natives catch them with birdlime, and sell them at a considerable price, on account of the beauty of their plumage.

The Bactrian camel has two bunches on the back, and is found in various parts of Asia. The Arabs regard the camel as a present from heaven, a sacred animal, without whose assistance they could neither subsist, carry on trade, nor travel. Camel's milk is their common food; they also eat its flesh, that of the young camel being reckoned highly savory. Of the hair of those animals, which is fine and soft, and which is completely renewed every year, the Arabians make stuffs for clothes and other furniture. With their camels, they not only want nothing, but have nothing to fear. In one day they can perform a journey of 50 leagues into the desert, which cuts off every approach from their enemies. All the armies of the world would perish in pursuit of a troop of Arabs. Hence they never submit, unless from choice, to any power. With a view to his predatory expeditions, the Arab instructs, rears, and exercises his camels. A few

days after their birth, he folds their limbs under their belly, forces them to remain on the ground, and in this situation loads them with a pretty heavy weight, which is never removed, but for the purpose of replacing a greater. Instead of allowing them to feed at pleasure, and to drink when they are dry, he begins with regulating their meals, and makes them gradually travel long journeys, diminishing at the same time the quantity of their aliment. When they acquire some strength, they are trained to the course. He excites their emulation by the example of horses, and in time renders them more robust. In fine, after he is certain of the strength, fleetness, and sobriety of his camels, he loads them both with his own and their food, sets off with them, arrives unperceived at the confines of the desert; robs the first passenger he meets, pillages the solitary houses, loads his camels with the booty, and, if pursued, is obliged to accelerate his retreat. It is on these occasions that he unfolds his own talents and those of the camels. He mounts one of the fleetest, conducts the troop, and makes them travel night and day, almost without either stopping, eating, or drinking; and in this manner he easily performs a journey of 300 leagues in eight days; during this period of motion and fatigue, his camels are perpetually loaded, and he allows each day one hour only for repose, and a ball of paste. They often run in this manner nine or ten days without finding water, and when by chance there is a pool at some distance, they smell the water half a league off: thirst makes them double their pace, and they drink as much at once as serves them for the time that is past and as much to come. The camel is said to unite every thing that is valuable in the horse, the ass, the ox, and the elephant, and to be the most useful animal that is subjected to the service of man.

The kangaroo has been found no where but in New South Wales, but has of late become well known in this country. It lurks among the grass, and feeds on vegetables; it goes entirely on its hind legs, making use of the fore feet only for digging, or bringing its food to its mouth. It is very timid; at the sight of man, it flies from him by amazing leaps, springing over bushes seven or eight feet high, and going progressively from rock to rock. Its tail, which is very large, is used as a weapon of defence: its flesh is coarse and lean, but is sometimes used for food. The female has a pouch, like that of the opossum.

Map of Africa, to face vol. i. page 43.

Part of the natural history of Africa, to face vol. i. page 43.

This plate is entitled *Part* of the natural history of Africa, because it is impossible to exhibit in such narrow compass all the variety of animals which inhabit that quarter of the world. Beginning with the left side of the plate, the first object that strikes our attention is the fore part of a crocodile, which is apparently in the act of waiting for his prey. The crocodile is the largest animal of the lizard kind, growing sometimes to 18 or 20 feet in length. It has no tongue, but in the place of that organ there is a sort of membrane, attached by its edges to the two sides of the under jaw. The nose is placed in the middle of the upper jaw, near an inch from its extremity, and is perfectly round and flat, being two inches in diameter, of a black, soft, spongy substance, not unlike the nose of a dog; the nostrils are in the form of a capital M placed thus ⋈; and there

are two caruncles, which filled and closed them very exactly, and which opened as often as he breathed through the nose; the jaws seemed to shut one within another by means of several apophyses, which proceeded from above downwards, and from below upwards, there being cavities in the opposite jaw to receive them. They have 27 dog-teeth in the upper jaw, and 15 in the lower, with several void spaces between them; they were thick at the bottom, and sharp at the point; being all of different sizes, except ten large hooked ones, six of which are in the lower jaw, and four in the upper. The mouth is 15 inches in length, and eight and a half in breadth where broadest; and the distance of the two jaws, when opened as wide as they can be, is 15½ inches. The skull between the crests is proof against a musket-ball, for it only renders the part a little white that it struck against. The eye is very small in proportion to the rest of the body; and is so placed within its orbit, that the outward part, when shut, is only a little above an inch in length, and runs parallel to the opening of the jaws. The head is long, and has a little rising at the top, but the rest is flat, and especially towards the extremity of the jaws. It is covered with a skin, which adheres firmly to the skull and to the jaws. The skull is rough and unequal in several places, and about the middle of the forehead there are two bony crests, about two inches high: they are not quite parallel, but separated from each other in proportion as they mount upwards. The fore legs have the same parts and conformation as the arms of a man, both within and without; but they were somewhat shorter than those behind: the hands have five fingers, the two last of which have no nails, and are of a conical figure: the hind feet are divided into four toes, of which three are armed with large claws, but the fourth is without a nail; these toes are united together with membranes, like those of ducks, but much thicker. The colour of the body is of a dark brown on the upper part, and of a whitish citron below, with large spots of both colours on the sides. From the shoulders to the extremity of the tail he is covered with large scales, of a square form, disposed like parallel girdles, and are 52 in number; but those near the tail were not so thick as the rest. In the middle of each girdle there are four protuberances, which became higher as they approached the end of the tail, and composed four rows; of which the two in the middle are lower than the remaining two, forming three channels, which grow deeper the nearer they come to the tail, and are confounded with each other about two feet from its extremity. The skin is defended with a sort of armour, which is not, however, proof against a musket-ball. This description is taken from an individual dissected at Siam, but it is applicable, in most instances, to crocodiles in general. The female lays eggs, which she covers over with sand, and leaves to be hatched by the heat of the sun. They are to be met with in the rivers Nile, Niger, and Ganges, beside most other large rivers in the southern parts of Asia and Africa, but are not equally dangerous in all countries: they are said to be very formidable in Upper Egypt, where they float along the surface of the water, and seize whatever animals come within their reach. When this method fails, they approach nearer to the bank, where they wait in patient expectation of such creatures as may come to drink, seizing, with the utmost ferocity, the bull, the dog, the tiger, or man himself.

The elephant is the largest of all animals. From the front to the origin of the tail he is generally about 16 feet long, from the end of the trunk 25 feet, and about 14 feet

high: the circumference of the neck is about 17 feet, and the circumference of the body, at the grossest part, 25 feet 10 inches; the tail is about six feet long, and two and a half in circumference; the circumference of the leg is six feet: these are the largest dimensions. But the animal differs in size in different countries; in some not exceeding seven feet in height. The eyes are small in proportion to the size of the animal; the muzzle is very different from that of any other quadruped; it is nothing but the origin of a long trunk, which hangs between the two large tusks; the mouth appears behind the trunk, which serves in the place of an upper lip, and the under lip terminates in a point: the feet are short, round, clumsy, and only distinguishable by the toes: the trunk is, properly speaking, the nose, extended, and terminated by a couple of nostrils. But besides serving as an organ of smell, the trunk performs all the functions of a strong and dexterous arm. It is a pipe, of an irregular conical figure, about eight feet long, five and a half in circumference near the mouth, and one foot and a half near the extremity; the upper side of the trunk is convex, and the under side flat. At the extremity of the trunk there is a concave protuberance, in the bottom of which are the two passages of the nostrils: the inferior part of the protuberance is thicker than the sides, and the superior is stretched out like a finger, about five inches long, which, together with the edges of the whole extremity of the trunk, takes on different figures, according to the necessities of the animal. It is by this organ that the elephant lays hold of food or other substances, which he manages with as much dexterity as a man does his hand, taking up grains of corn, or the smallest piles of grass, and conveying them to his mouth. When he drinks, he thrusts his trunk into the water, and fills it by drawing in his breath and exhausting the air; when the trunk is thus filled with water, he can either throw it out to a great distance, or drink it, by putting the end of the trunk in his mouth. The two large tusks of the elephant are of a yellowish colour, and extremely hard; the bony substance of which they are composed is known by the name of ivory: the ears are very large, and resemble those of an ape; the skin of the elephant has but few hairs on it, and placed at a great distance from each other; it is full of wrinkles, like those on the palm of a man's hand, besides many chapped and greasy ridges: the female has two dugs, one on each side of the breast. When tamed, as is frequent in the south of Asia, the elephant is the most friendly and obedient of all animals; he is entirely attached to the person who feeds and takes care of him. In a short time he understands signs and the sound of his master's voice. He distinguishes the language of passion, of command, of satisfaction; and acts accordingly. He receives his orders with attention, and executes them with prudence and alacrity, but without precipitation. He easily learns to bow his knees and lower his body, for the convenience of those who mount him. He caresses his friends with his trunk. He lifts burdens with his trunk, and assists those who are loading him in laying them on his back. He delights in shining harness and trappings. When yoked in a cart or waggon, he pulls equally and cheerfully, unless he be abused by injudicious chastisements. His guide is generally mounted on his neck, with a small rod of iron, sharp at the point, in his hand; he directs his motion by pricking him on the ears and head; but for the most part a word is sufficient.

The secretary is a singular species of bird, resembling waders in the great length of its legs, but has, notwithstanding, the characters of the vulture so strongly marked upon

it, as to leave no doubt to which species it belongs. The bird, when standing erect, is full three feet from the top of the head to the ground: the bill is black, sharp, and crooked, like that of an eagle; the head, neck, breast, and upper parts of the body are of a bluish ash colour; the legs are very long, stouter than those of a heron, and of a brown colour; claws shortish, but crooked, not very sharp, and of a black colour; from the hind-head springs a number of long feathers, which hang loose behind like a pendent crest; these feathers arise by pairs, and are longer as they are lower down on the neck; this crest the bird can erect or depress at pleasure; it is of a dark colour, almost black; the webs are equal on both sides, and rather curled, and the feathers, when erected, somewhat incline towards the neck. This singular species inhabits the interior of Africa, and is frequently seen at the Cape of Good Hope. It principally feeds on rats, lizards, snakes, and other reptiles, and is easily tamed.

The serpent on the tree is the Boa Constrictor, an immense animal, as it often exceeds 36 feet in length: the body is very thick, of a dusky white colour, and its back is interspersed with 24 large, pale, irregular spots; the tail is of a darker colour, and the sides are beautifully variegated. Its flesh is eaten by the Indians and the negroes of Africa. It frequents caves and thick forests, where it conceals itself, and suddenly darts out upon strangers, wild beasts, &c. When it chooses a tree for its watching place, it supports itself by twisting its tail round the trunk or a branch, and darts down upon sheep, goats, tigers, or any animal that comes within its reach. When it lays hold of animals, especially any of the larger kinds, it twists itself several times round their body, and by the vast force of its circular muscles, bruises and breaks all their bones. After the bones are broke, it licks the skin of the animal all over, besmearing it with a glutinous kind of saliva; this operation is intended as a preparation for swallowing the whole animal. If it be a stag or any other horned animal, it begins to swallow the feet first, and gradually sucks in the body, and last of all the head. When the horns happen to be large, they have been observed to stick for a long time out of the mouth of the serpent, which is unable to move for several days after having devoured such bulky prey. At these seasons the Boa is frequently destroyed by the hunters.

Africa abounds with an immense variety of apes, monkeys, and baboons; among these the Great Baboon is remarkable for having very long hair on the forehead, which turns backwards: they live chiefly on fruits, nuts, and eggs, and in a tamed state will drink great quantities of wine or brandy.

The largest lions are from eight to nine feet in length, and from four to six feet high; those of a smaller size are generally about five feet and a half long, and about three and a half high; his head is very thick, and his face is beset on all sides with long, bushy, yellowish hair: this shaggy hair extends from the top of the head to below the shoulders, and hangs down to his knees; the belly and breast are likewise covered with long hair; the rest of the body is covered with very short hair, excepting a bush at the end of the tail; the tail is long, and very strong; the legs are thick, and very fleshy; the feet are short; and the claws very sharp, and about an inch and a quarter long: the fiercest lions are those of Biledulgerid, in the desert of Zaara. He has been frequently tamed, and in that case displays considerable affection for his master, as well as for such small animal as it occasionally takes under its protection.

Part of the natural history of America, to face vol i. page 48.

There are 33 species of tortoise, of which the alidas or common sea turtle is the most remarkable. It is found in America and in the islands of the South sea; the shell is so very strong, that it can carry more than 600 pounds on its back, or as many men as can stand on it loaded. It digs round holes in the sand, in which it lays a vast number of eggs yearly, to the amount of 1000 it is said. It broods on them during the night. Its flesh is of a greenish colour, makes excellent food, and is the dish of sailors as well as of epicures. It lives on cuttle and shell-fish, and grows to a prodigious size, some having been found to weigh 480 pounds.

The alligator in many respects resembles the crocodile, but is less ferocious, preying chiefly on fish, though it will sometimes kill dogs, as they swim in the rivers, and hogs, which feed in the swamps. It frequents the large rivers in the warmer parts of North America, as well as in South America, where it would be productive of great mischief, did it not meet with a formidable enemy, when young, in the carrion vulture.

The nose of the tapir is very remarkable, extending far beyond the lower jaw, is slender, and forms a sort of proboscis; it is capable of being contracted or extended at pleasure: the extremities of both jaws end in a point, and there are ten cutting teeth in each. Between them and the grinders there is a vacant space, and there are ten grinders in each jaw: the ears are erect, the eyes small, and the body is shaped like that of a hog; the back is arched, the legs are short, and the hoofs small, black, and hollow; the tail is very small; the animal grows to the size of a heifer half a year old; the hair is short; when young it is spotted with white, when old of a dusk colour. It inhabits the woods and rivers of the eastern side of South America, from the isthmus of Darien to the river of Amazons. It sleeps during the day in the darkest and thickest parts, adjacent to the banks, and goes out in the night time in search of food. It lives on grass, sugar-canes, and on fruits. If disturbed it takes to the water, swims very well, or sinks below, and, like the hippopotamus, walks on the bottom as on dry ground. It makes a sort of hissing noise. This is the largest of the American animals.

The wolverine, which is stationed on a branch of the tree in this plate, has a black, sharp pointed visage, short rounded ears, almost hid in the hairs; the sides of a yellowish brown, which passes in form of a band quite over the hind part of the back, above the tail; the legs are very strong, thick, and short, of a deep black; the whole body is covered with very long and thick hair, which varies in colour according to the season. It inhabits Hudson's bay and Canada, as far as the straits of Michilimakinac, is found under the name of the glutton in the northern parts of Europe and Asia, being a native of the most rigorous climates. It is a most voracious animal, and slow of foot, so is obliged to take its prey by surprise. In America it is called the beaver eater, watching those animals as they come out of their houses, and sometimes breaking into their habitations and devouring them. It often lurks on trees, and falls on the quadrupeds that pass under; will fasten on the horse, elk, or stag, and continue eating a hole into its body, till the animal falls down with the pain; or else will tear out his eyes: no force can disengage it; yet sometimes the deer, in their agony, have been known to destroy it, by running their head violently against a tree. It devours the isatis, or white fox; searches for the traps laid for the sables and other animals; and is often before hand with the huntsmen, who

that at length it is in danger of bursting; and that it is obliged to ease itself of its load, by squeezing it out between two trees. In a wild state it is vastly fierce, a terror to both wolf and bear, which will not prey on it when they find it dead, perhaps on account of its being so very fetid, smelling like a polecat. It makes a strong resistance when attacked, will tear the stock from the gun, and pull the traps it is caught in to pieces. Notwithstanding this, it is capable of being tamed, and of learning several tricks. It burrows, and has its den under ground. The skin is sold in Siberia for four or six shillings, at Jakutsk for 12 shillings, and still dearer at Kamschatka, where the women dress their hair with its white paws, which they esteem a great ornament: the fur is greatly esteemed in Europe; that of the north of Europe and Asia, whose skins are sometimes to be seen in the furriers' shops, is much finer, blacker, and more glossy than that of the wolverine, or American kind. The glutton has, by some authors, been confounded with the hyena

Map of England and Wales, to face vol. i. page 93.

Map of Scotland, to face vol. i. page 122.

Map of Ireland, to face vol. i. page 90

Lord Howe's engagement with the French fleet, June 1st, 1794, to face vol. i. page 490.

Natural history of the Polar Regions, to face vol. i. page 575

This plate affords a view of those immense masses of ice, which are collected in the ocean, on the coast of East Greenland or Spitzbergen. The animals exhibited are the brown bear, the white bear, the seal, the walrus, and the common sea-gull. The brown or black bear has strong, thick, and clumsy limbs; very short tail; large feet, body covered with long and shaggy hair, various in its colour; the largest are of a rusty brown; the smallest of a deep black; some from the confines of Russia black mixed with white hairs, called by the Germans silver bear; and some (but rarely) are found in Tartary of a pure white. It inhabits the north parts of Europe and Asia, the Alps, the islands of Ceylon and Japan, and it is also found in North America and Peru. They are sometimes carnivorous, but their general food is roots, fruits, and vegetables: they will rob the fields of peas, and when they are ripe, pluck up great quantities, beat the peas out of the husks on some hard place, eat them, and carry off the straw; they will also, during winter, break into the farmer's yard, and make great havoc among his stock of oats: their favourite food is honey. The flesh of a bear in autumn, when they are exceedingly fat, by feeding on acorns, is delicate food; and that of the cubs still finer; but the paws of the old bears are reckoned the most exquisite morsel; the fat white and very sweet; the oil excellent for strains and pains of long standing. At the latter end of autumn, after they have fattened themselves to the greatest degree, the bears withdraw to their dens, where they continue a great number of days in total inactivity and absence from food, having no other nourishment than what they get by sucking their feet, where the fat lodges in great abundance.

The Polar or white bear resides only in the coldest parts of the globe, and it has been found as far as the navigators have penetrated northward. During summer, the white bears are either resident on islands of ice, or passing from one to another; they swim admirably, and can continue that exercise six or seven leagues, and dive with great agility: they bring forth two young at a time; the affection between the parents and them is so strong, that they would sooner die than desert one another. Their winter retreats are under the snow, in which they form deep dens, supported by pillars of the same. They feed on fish, seals, and the carcases of whales, and on human bodies, which they will greedily tear up; they seem very fond of human blood; and are so fearless, as to attack companies of armed men, and even to board small vessels When on land, they live on birds and their eggs; and allured by the scent of seals' flesh, often break into and plunder the houses of the Greenlanders: their greatest enemy in the brute creation is the walrus, with whom they have terrible conflicts, but are generally worsted, the vast teeth of the former giving it a superiority. The flesh is white, and said to taste like mutton; the fat is melted for train oil, and that of the feet is used in medicine.

The seal has a smooth head, without external ears, and the common length is from five to six feet. The fore legs are deeply immersed in the skin of the body; the hind legs are placed in such a manner as to point directly backward; every foot is divided into five toes, and each of these connected by a strong and broad web, covered on both sides with short hair: the toes are furnished with strong claws, well adapted to assist the animal in climbing the rocks it basks on; the claws on the hind feet are slender and straight, except at the ends, which are a little incurvated. The head and nose are broad and flat, like those of the otter; the neck short and thick; the eyes large and black; in lieu of external ears, it has two small orifices; the nostrils are oblong, on each side the nose are several long stiff hairs; and above each eye are a few of the same kind. The form of the tongue is singular, being forked or slit at the end; the whole animal is covered with short hair, very closely set together. They are very useful to the Greenlanders, whom they furnish with food, clothing, and various other articles.

The walrus or sea-horse is sometimes 18 feet long, and has a round head and two enormous teeth, which are its weapons of defence: they inhabit the coast of Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, Hudson's bay, the gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Icy sea, as far as cape Tschuktschi. They are gregarious, in some places appearing in herds of hundreds: they are shy animals, and avoid places which are much haunted by mankind, but are very fierce. If wounded in the water, they attempt to sink the boat, either by rising under it, or by striking their great teeth into the sides; they roar very loud, and will follow the boat till it gets out of sight. Numbers of them are often seen sleeping on an island of ice; if awaked, they fling themselves with great impetuosity into the sea, at which time it is dangerous to approach the ice, lest they should tumble into the boat and overset it. They are killed for the sake of their oil, one walrus producing about half a tun.

Greenland whale fishery, to face vol. i. page 577, to which we refer for the description.

Dresses of the Icelanders, with a view of mount Hecla, to face vol. i. page 582, to which and the succeeding pages we refer for the description of mount Hecla.

The modern Icelanders have made very little alteration in their dress from what was formerly in use: the men all wear a linen shirt next to the skin, with a short jacket, and a pair of wide breeches over it. When they travel, another short coat is put over all. The whole is made of coarse black cloth, called wadmal; but some wear clothes of a white colour. On their head they wear large three-cornered hats, and on their feet Iceland shoes and worsted stockings. Some of them indeed have shoes from Copenhagen; but as they are rather too dear for them, they generally make their own shoes, sometimes of the hide of oxen, but more frequent of sheep's leather; they make them by cutting a square piece of leather, rather wider than the length of the foot; this they sew up at the toes, and behind at the heel, and tie it on with leather thongs: the shoes are convenient enough where the country is level; but it would be very difficult for us, who are not accustomed, to walk with them amongst the rocks and stones, though the Icelanders do it with great ease.

The women are likewise dressed in black wadmal: they wear a bodice over their shifts, which are sewed up at the bosom; and above this a jacket, laced before, with long narrow sleeves, reaching down to the wrists. In the opening, on the side of the sleeve, they have buttons of chased silver, with a plate fixed to each button; on which the lover, when he buys them, in order to present them to his mistress, takes care to have his name engraved, along with hers. At the top of the jacket, a little black collar is fixed, of about three inches broad, of velvet or silk, and frequently trimmed with gold cord. The petticoat is likewise of wadmal, and reaches down to the ankles. Round the top of it is a girdle of silver, or some other metal, to which they fasten the apron, which is also of wadmal, and ornamented at top with buttons of chased silver. Over all this they wear an upper-dress, nearly resembling that of the Swedish peasants, with this difference, that it is wider at bottom; this is close at the neck and wrists, and a hand's breadth shorter than the petticoat. It is adorned with a facing down to the bottom, which looks like cut velvet, and is generally wove by the Icelandic women. On their fingers they wear gold, silver, ar brass rings. Their head-dress consists of several cloths round the head, almost as high again as the face. It is tied fast with a handkerchief, and serves more for warmth than ornament.

Birds of the Northern Regions, to face vol. i. page 605.

This plate contains a representation of the manner of catching young birds, and gathering eggs in Norway, in which they let themselves down, by a similar process to that described in the account in the before-mentioned page, of recovering lost cattle.

The large bird, with short wings, is the penguin, of which there are several different species: their attitude at land is quite erect; they are very tame, and may be driven like a flock of sheep: in water they are remarkably active, swim with vast strength, assisted by their wings, which serve instead of fins: they feed chiefly upon fish, but will eat grass like geese.

A little higher is the Greenland dove, another of the inhabitants of these inhospitable climates; in the middle of the plate are three sea gulls, and to the right the puffin.

The puffin has a compressed bill. Its legs are very small, and placed so far behind, as to disqualify it from standing, except quite erect, resting not only on the foot, but the

whole length of the leg: this circumstance makes the rise of the puffin from the ground very difficult, and it meets with many falls before it gets on wing; but when that is effected, few birds fly longer or stronger. These birds frequent the coast of several parts of Great Britain and Ireland; but no place in greater numbers than Priestholm isle, where their flocks may be compared to swarms of bees for multitude. These are birds of passage; they resort there annually, about the fifth or tenth of April; quit the place (almost to a bird) and return twice or thrice before they settle, to burrow and prepare for ovation and incubation: they begin to burrow the first week in May; but some few save themselves that trouble, and dislodge the rabbits from their holes, taking possession of them till their departure from the isle. Those which form their own burrows are at that time so intent on the work, as to suffer themselves to be taken by the hand; this task falls chiefly to the share of the males, who also assist in incubation: the first young are hatched the beginning of July. The old ones show affection towards them, and seem totally insensible of danger in the breeding season. If a parent is taken at that time, and suspended by the wings, it will, in a sort of despair, treat itself most cruelly, by biting every part it can reach, and the moment it is loosed, will never offer to escape, but instantly resort to its unfledged young: this affection ceases at the stated time of migration, which is most punctually about the 11th of August, when they leave such young as cannot fly to the mercy of the peregrine falcon, who watches the mouths of the holes for the appearance of the little deserted puffins, which, forced by hunger, are compelled to leave their burrows.

Map of Sweden, to face vol. i. page 615.

Map of Germany, to face vol. i. page 631.

Internal view of the silver mines, near Schemnitz, in Hungary, to face vol i. page 668.

Schemnitz, a town of Upper Hungary, with three castles. It is famous for mines of silver and other metals, as also for hot baths. Near it is a rock of shining blue colour, mixed with green, and some spots of yellow.

Map of the United Provinces, to face vol. ii. page 3

Map of the Netherlands, to face vol. ii. page 14.

Map of France, to face vol. ii. page 21.

Map of Spain, to face vol. ii. page 43.

The Corrida de Toros, or Bull-fight, in Spain, to face vol. ii. page 43.

These combats, of which the Spaniards are very fond, are exhibited only in the summer season, as the bulls are then fiercest, and the spectators can sit the most comfortably in the open air. They are performed in a kind of circus, surrounded by a dozen seats, rising one above another: the balconies of the houses are widened, so as to project over

the streets, which end there; and it is really a very interesting sight, to see the different classes of people assembled round this square, waiting for the signal with every sign of impatience and joy. The bull has first to contend against the picadores, combatants on horseback, who, dressed according to the antient Spanish manner, and, as it were, fixed to their saddles, wait for him, each being armed with a long lance. If the bull has great courage, he braves the pointed steel, which makes deep wounds in his neck, attacks with fury the innocent horse who carries his enemy, rips up his sides, and overturns him, together with his rider. The latter then, dismounted and disarmed, would be exposed to imminent danger, did not combatants on foot, called chulos, come to direct the bull's attention, and to provoke him, by shaking before him different pieces of cloth, of various colours. It is, however, at their own risk, that they thus save the dismounted horseman; for the bull sometimes pursues them, and they have then need of all their agility. They often escape from him, by letting fall in his way the piece of stuff, which was their only arms, and against which the deceived animal expends all his fury. As soon as it is concluded that the bull has been sufficiently tormented by the combatants on horseback, they retire, and leave him to be irritated by those on foot. The latter, who are called banderilleros, go before the animal, and the moment he darts upon them, they plunge into his neck, two by two, a kind of darts, called banderillas, the points of which are hooked, and which are ornamented with small streamers, made of coloured paper. The fury of the bull is now redoubled; he roars, tosses his head, and the vain efforts which he makes serve only to increase the pain of his wounds. When the vigour of the bull appears to be almost exhausted, when his blood, issuing from 20 wounds, streams along his neck, and moistens his robust sides; and when the people, tired of one object, demand another victim; the president of the entertainment gives the signal of death, which is announced by the sound of trumpets: the matador then advances, and all the rest quit the arena; with one hand he holds a long dagger, and with the other a kind of flag, which he waves backwards and forwards before his adversary: they both stop and gaze at one another, and while the agility of the matador deceives the impetuosity of the bull, the pleasure of the spectators, which was for some time suspended, is again awakened into life. At length he finds an opportunity to give the fatal blow; the animal vomits up blood; he staggers and falls, while his conqueror is intoxicated with the applauses of the people: three mules, ornamented with bells and streamers, come to terminate the tragedy. A rope is tied around the bull's horns, which have betrayed his valour, and the animal, which, but a little before, was furious and proud, is dragged ignominiously from the arena, which he has honoured, and leaves only the traces of his blood, and the remembrance of his exploits, which are soon effaced, on the appearance of his successor. On each of the days set apart for these entertainments, six are thus sacrificed in the morning, and twelve in the afternoon, at least in Madrid. The Spanish government have endeavoured to set bounds to these entertainments, which the strong prejudices of the people have not permitted them wholly to prohibit.

Map of Switzerland, to face vol. ii. page 62.

Fall of the Rhine, at Schaffhausen, in Switzerland, to face vol. ii. page 62.

Fall of the Staubach in Switzerland, to face vol. ii. page 62. Perpendicular height 1600 feet.

Map of Italy, to face vol. ii. page 69.

A view of the city of Catania, and mount Ætna, in Sicily, to face vol. ii. page 91.

In this, and the five succeeding pages, the reader will find such an ample account of mount Ætna, as removes the necessity of any additional description; we shall therefore only remark, that the city of Catania is erected on the ruins of an antient town of the same name, which has been long since covered with lava; that its inhabitants are much distinguished by the spirit of building, and that its church, though it has neither porch nor cupola, is accounted the largest in Sicily.

Map of Muscovy, or Russia in Europe, to face vol. ii. page 251.

The punishment of Russian pirates, to face vol. ii. page 258.

The criminals, on whom this horrid mode of execution is employed, are the pirates, who have infested the great river Volga. It sometimes happens, that the raft, on which they are set on float, stops near the bank, and they are taken down alive by some of their companions; in which case they have been often times recovered, and become more desperate robbers than before. More usually, however, they die raving mad, with their excruciating torture.

View of the Great Wall, that divides China from Tartary, to face vol. ii. page 334.

A mandarin administering justice, to face vol. ii. page 337.

A view of Pekin, the capital of China, to face vol. ii. page 338.

This immense city, which contains several millions of inhabitants, is situated in a very fertile plain, 20 leagues distant from the great wall: it is an exact square, and divided into two parts, namely that which contains the emperor's palace, which is in the new city, or, as it is called the Tartary city, because it is inhabited by Tartars; and the other, called the old city, is inhabited by the Chinese: they are full six leagues in circumference. Grosier tells us, "that the height and enormous thickness of the walls of the Tartar city excite admiration; twelve horsemen might easily ride abreast upon them; they have spacious towers, raised at intervals, a bow-shot distant from one another, and large enough to contain bodies of reserve, in case of necessity. The city has nine gates, which are lofty and well arched. Over them are large pavilion-roofed towers, divided into stories, each having several apertures or port-holes: the lower story forms a large hall, for the use of the soldiers and officers who quit guard and those appointed to relieve them. Before each gate a space is left, of more than 360 feet; this is a kind of place of arms, inclosed by a semicircular wall, equal in height and thickness to that surrounding the city. The great road, which ends here, is commanded by a pavilion-roofed tower, like the first, in such manner, that as the cannon of the former can batter the houses of

the city, those of the latter can sweep the adjacent country. The streets of Pekin are straight, about 120 feet wide, a full league in length, and bordered with shops. It is astonishing to see the immense concourse of people that continually fills them, and the confusion caused by the prodigious number of horses, camels, mules, and carriages, which cross or meet each other. Besides this inconvenience, one is every now and then stopped by crowds, who stand listening to fortune-tellers, jugglers, ballad-singers, and a thousand other mountebanks and buffoons, who read and relate stories calculated to promote mirth and laughter, or distribute medicines, the wonderful effects of which they explain with all the eloquence peculiar to them. The temples and the towers of this city are so numerous, that it is difficult to count them. Provisions of all kinds are exceeding plentiful, they being, as well as the merchandizes, brought from other parts, by means of canals, cut from the rivers, and always crowded with vessels of different sizes, as well as from the adjacent country. An earthquake, which happened here in 1731, buried above 100,000 persons in the ruins of the houses which were thrown down.

A Chinese lady, her child, and servant, to face vol. ii. page 344.

A Mandarin and his wife, with a view of a temple on the banks of the Yellow river in China, to face vol. ii. page 344.

In this and the two following pages the dresses of the Mandarins and other Chinese are described. The Chinese architecture, as displayed in the temple, is entirely different from that of the Greeks and Romans, but nevertheless has certain proportions of its own, and a beauty peculiar to itself. Very few houses in China, unless public buildings, are more than one story in height.

Five falls in the Caverry in Mysore, to face vol. ii. page 401.

The perpendicular height of the highest of these is 258 feet.

A man and woman of Hindostan, with a temple for Hindoo worship, to face vol. ii. page 405.

The variation which is observable in a few instances between the description of their dress, as given in the before-mentioned page, and the representation in the plate, is to be accounted for from a circumstance which takes place in all countries, viz. that the lower classes of people, when employed in hard labour, and exposed to the heat of the sun, are less regularly clothed than the higher order of society. The temples of the Hindoos are not built in conformity to any rules of architecture, but are principally remarkable for their immense size, which gives them an air of grandeur.

An Indian mausoleum in the Mysore, with a banyan tree, to face vol. ii. page 407.

This mausoleum is erected in a style widely different from any of the orders of European architecture. The banyan tree is particularly valuable for the shelter it affords to the inhabitants of India from the piercing rays of a vertical sun.

A Persian lady receiving a visitor, to face vol. ii. page 410.

The dress of the Persian ladies differs but little from that of the men, only their vests are longer, and they wear stiffened caps instead of the turban: the Persians are the most polite people in the east.

Sepulchres of the judges of Israel, to face vol. ii. page 447.

Dress of the Turks, with a view of the Grand Signior's Seraglio, to face vol. ii. page 465.

The Turks shave their heads, but wear their beards long, except the military and those in the seraglio, who wear only whiskers: they cover their heads with a white linen turban, of an enormous size, and never pull it off but when they sleep: none but Turks must presume to wear a white turban: their breeches or trowsers are of a piece with their stockings; and they have slippers instead of shoes, which they pull off when they enter a temple or house: they wear shirts with wide sleeves, not gathered at the wrists, and over them a vest tied with a sash; their upper garment being a loose gown, something shorter than the vest. The seraglio of the grand signior at Constantinople, where he keeps his court, where his concubines are lodged, and where the youth are trained up for the chief posts of the empire, is a triangle, about three Italian miles round, wholly within the city, at the end of the promontory Chrysoceras, now called the seraglio point: the buildings run back to the top of the hill, and from thence are gardens that reach to the edge of the sea. It is inclosed with a very high and strong wall, upon which there are several watch-towers; and it has many gates, some of which open towards the sea-side, and the rest into the city; but the chief gate is one of the latter, which is constantly guarded by a company of capochees or porters; and in the night it is well guarded towards the sea: the outward appearance is not very beautiful, the architecture being irregular, consisting of different edifices, in the form of pavilions and domes.

A Saadi or Egyptian quack curing a sick man, by pretended conjurations with serpents, to face vol ii. page 484.

We have received various accounts from travellers of some particular Egyptian families, who have the secret of handling the most deadly serpents, and even suffering themselves to be bitten by them without receiving any injury.

View of the pyramids of Memphis, and colossal sphynx's head, to face vol. ii. page 484.

These enormous masses have been celebrated throughout all ages for their magnitude and antiquity; they are three in number, and stand near one another on the west side of the Nile, almost opposite to Grand Cairo, and not far from the site of the antient Memphis: the territory which surrounds them is so rich, that it has furnished the antients with the fable of the Elysian fields: the largest of these pyramids has been frequently measured, but with a strange variety of result; it is probably not less than 500 French feet in height, and 600 in width. It is built with about 200 layers of stone, each of which layers is from two to four feet high: the antiquity of these buildings renders it

impossible to ascertain their origin, and it is disputed among the moderns whether they were intended as fire temples or as sepulchral monuments.

A sphynx is a fabulous monster, having the head and neck of a woman, and the body of a lion. Among the Egyptians it was the symbol of religion, and images of this monster were used to shew the beginning of the waters rising in the Nile. Several images of the sphynx are still to be seen, one in particular near the pyramids, which is of a prodigious size, and cut out of the rock: the body of it is buried up in the sand, so that only the head and neck appear; but these are of such prodigious dimensions, that it is 15 feet from the ear to the chin, according to the most moderate computation.

A Mameluke and Turks of Egypt, to face vol. ii. page 489.

The Colossal statues, with the ruins of the palace of Memnon, opposite Carnac on the Nile, to face vol. ii. page 490.

Colossal statues of different kinds were probably frequent in antient Egypt, as the Egyptians considered enormous size as being one of the most essential requisites to the producing a sublime effect. From the rude sculptures and hieroglyphical characters yet discoverable on these statues, it is likely they were intended to commemorate some important event, which has been long since consigned to oblivion.

A Turkish bashaw receiving a petition, to face vol. ii. page 532.

In this page and the preceding is described that insolence of power so characteristic of Turkish governors, which is so well illustrated by this plate.

A person of rank in Congo carried by his slaves, to face vol. ii. page 545.

A Hottentot man and woman, with a view of the Table mountain and Cape-town, at the Cape of Good Hope, to face vol. ii. page 584.

The Hippopotamus of the Cape of Good Hope, to face vol. ii. page 585.

This animal has been seldom seen, and is for that reason but imperfectly described by naturalists or travellers. In bulk it is second only to the elephant, the length of the males being sometimes 17 feet. It is supposed by many to be the behemoth mentioned in Job. Its appearance and manners are sufficiently evident from the plate.

View of the new theatre at the Cape of Good Hope, to face vol. ii. page 587.

Map of South America, to face vol. ii. page 601.

View of the city and harbour of Acapulco, in Spanish America, to face vol. ii. page 611.

Acapulco is a small town in Mexico, with a fine harbour It sends a ship every

year to the Philippine islands, and receives, by the return of another, a very rich cargo of Asiatic commodities

Map of the West Indies, to face vol. ii. page 621.

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AN

EXPLANATORY INDEX,

OF

SCIENTIFIC TERMS AND UNUSUAL WORDS.

ADHESION, sticking or adhering to any thing.
Aerial, airy.
Aliment, nourishment, such is food or drink.
Amalgamate, to unite particles of different kinds, by means of pressure and other processes.
Animalculæ, animals which are invisible without the assistance of the microscope.
Annular, shaped like a ring.
Apex, the top of any thing which terminates in a point.
Apogee, the place of the moon, when at its greatest distance from our earth.
Aquatic, belonging to the water.
Aqueous, watery.
Atmosphere, the collection of vapours and different kinds of air which every where surrounds the globe of the earth.
Autumnal, belonging to the time of harvest.
Axis, an imaginary line, drawn through planets, &c. round which they are supposed to perform their diurnal revolutions.
CALX, literally lime, a term used for that state of metal when it is scaly and divested of its splendour.
Capillary, resembling a hair.
Celerity, swiftness.
Cellular, composed of many small cavities, like a honeycomb.
Chrystalization, the conversion of a liquid into a solid substance, as by frost.
Coarctation, straitening, making narrower.
Cohere, to adhere together.
Columnary, resembling a pillar.
Concave, hollow, bending inward.
Condensation, forcing that into a small space which before was more extended.
Cone, a figure broad and round at the bottom, with a sharp top, like a common extinguisher.
Congelation, freezing together.
Cylinder, a roll of glass, or any other material.
DATA, established principles of reasoning.
Deciduous, falling, or inclined to fall.
Decompose, to separate the particles of any thing.
Density, compactness.
Diagram, a mathematical figure, drawn to illustrate a subject.
Diameter, a straight line drawn across a circle.
Disk, the face of the sun or moon.
Diurnal, daily.
Ductility, pliability, capacity of being bended.
Duplex, double, twofold.
EFFLUVIA, vapour arising from a heated substance.
Elasticity, a capacity to regain its former shape, as a bended spring or whalebone.
Elements, the simplest parts of nature.
Elevation, height.
Eliptical, oval.
Equilibrium, an exact balance.
Expansion, spreading out, occupying more extensive limits than before.
Exuviæ, shells and other natural clothing of animals
FARINACEOUS, resembling flour or meal.
Feline, resembling a cat.
Filtrate, to pass through any substance, so as to be cleansed from filth, saltness, &c.
Fissure, a cleft or crack.
Fluid, any substance which cannot be heaped up.
Fluxionary, belonging to Fluxions, a branch of the higher mathematics.
Fossil, any thing which is dug up.
GIBBOUS the shape of the moon a little before and after the full.
Globules, small globes.
Gravitation, the tendency of bodies to each other.
HEMISPHERE, a half globe or sphere.
Heterogenous, composed of different ingredients.
Hirundines, birds of the swallow kind.
Homogenous, composed of materials all of the same kind.
Hypothesis, a supposition.
IGNITED, set on fire.
Inflation, blowing up, so as to increase its bulk.
Inodorous, without scent.
Interstices, spaces between bodies near each other.
LAMINÆ, thin plates.
Laterally, sideways.
Ligature, a binding.
Locomotion, motion from place to place.
Lunation, the time from one new moon to another.
Lympheducts, vessels for the absorbing of fluids.
MALLEABILITY, that quality of metals which causes them to yield to the hammer.

Metalliferous, that produces metals.
NEBULA, a cloudy spot.
OBLATE, broader than it is long.
Oblong, longer than it is broad.
Olfactory, belonging to the smell.
Orbit, the course of a planet
Oxidated, rusty.
PERCOLATE, to strain through.
Perigee, the place of the moon when nearest to the earth.
Perimeter, the line which bounds a circle.
Phenomena, visible effects.
Phases, different appearances of the moon.
Physical, natural.
Piscine, belonging to fishes.
Primary Planets, those which go round no other centre than the sun.
Pulsate, to beat like the pulse.
QUADRUPEDS, four-footed animals.
RAREFACTION, the opposite of condensation.
Rectilinear, in a right line, straight forward.
Retrograde, backward.
Rhomboidal, belonging to a rhombus, a figure whose four sides are equal, but not right angled, like a quarry of common glass window.
Rotation, the motion of a body round its own axis, like a wheel.
SACCHARINE, sugary.
Saline, related to salt.
Semidiameter, half the diameter of a circle.
Siderial, belonging to the constellations or fixed stars.
Sphere, a globe.
Spheroid, a figure resembling a sphere.
Spiral, a line running transversely round a cylinder, cone or globe.
Stratum, a bed or layer of earth, &c.
Superficies, the outside or surface of any thing.
Superincumbent, resting upon from above, is chiefly applied to clouds and vapours.
System, in astronomy signifies all those bodies which revolve round the same centre.
TERRESTRIAL, belonging to the earth.
Theory, a branch of speculative knowledge, an hypothesis.
Tremulous, trembling.
UNCTUOSITY, oiliness.
Undulation, a motion like that of the waves.
Undulatory, having such motion.
Univalve, having one shell, like a snail or periwinkle.
VENOUS, belonging to the veins.
Vernal, belonging to spring.
Vertical, directly over our heads.
Vibration, a motion like that of the pendulum
Viscid, thick, glutinous.
Vitrify, to turn into glass.
ZODIACAL, belonging to the zodiac.

FINIS.

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A NEW

GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

CONTAINING THE

NAMES AND SITUATIONS

OF THE

CHIEF CITIES, TOWNS, SEAS, GULFS, BAYS, STRAITS, CAPES,

AND OTHER REMARKABLE PLACES IN THE KNOWN WORLD.

COLLECTED FROM THE MOST AUTHENTIC

CHARTS, MAPS, AND OBSERVATIONS

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Abbeville,	Somme,	France,	Europe	50-07 N.	1-54 E.
Aberdeen,	Aberdeenshire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-22 N.	1-40 W.
Abo,	Finland,	Sweden,	Europe	60-27 N.	22-18 E.
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North	America -	17-10 N.	101-20 W.
Adriatic sea, or Gulf of Venice,	between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Achem,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia	5-22 N.	95-29 E.
Adventure Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	17-05 S.	144-12 W.
Agde,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-18 N.	3-33 E.
Agen,	Aveiron,	France,	Europe	44-12 N.	0-40 E.
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	49-56 N.	6-41 W.
Agra,	Agra,	East India,	Asia	26-43 N.	76-49 E.
Air,	Airshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	4-35 W.
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	42-00 N.	26-30 E.
Aix,	Rhone,	France,	Europe	43-31 N.	5-31 E.
Alby,	Tarne,	France,	Europe	43-55 N.	2-13 E.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	35-45 N.	37-25 E.
Alexandretta,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-35 N.	35-25 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-11 N.	30-21 E.
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-49 N.	2-17 E.
Albany,	New York,	North	America	42-48 N.	73-30 W.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Isle,	East India,	Asia	4-25 S.	127-25 E.
Ambryn Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-09 S.	168-17 E.
Amiens,	Somme	France,	Europe	49-53 N.	2-22 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-22 N	4-49 E.
Amsterdam,	Isle,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174-51 W.
Ancona,	March of Ancona,	Italy,	Europe	43-37 N.	13-35 E.
Angra,	Tercera Isle,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-07 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	D. M. *Latitude.*	D. M. *Longitude.*
Antigua (St. John's town)	Antigua Isle,	Caribbee Sea,	N. America	17-04 N.	62-04 W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-30 N.	36-40 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	4-27 E.
Archipelago,	Islands of	Greece,	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Apæ (Isle)	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	16-46 S.	168-32 E.
Archangel,	Dwina,	Russia,	Europe	64-34 N.	38-59 E.
Ascension	Isle,	South Atlantic	Ocean	7-56 N.	14-27 W.
Astracan,	Astracan,	Russia	Asia	46-00 N.	51-00 E.
Athens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe	38-05 N.	23-57 E.
St. Augustin,	Madagascar,	South Ind. Sea,	Africa	23-35 S.	43-13 E.
Aurora Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-08 S.	168-22 E.
Ava,	Ava,	East India,	Asia	20-20 N.	95-30 E.
Avignon,	Tenaison,	France,	Europe	43-57 N.	4-53 E.
Bagdad,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	33-30 N.	43-51 E.
Baltic sea,	between	Ger. and Sweden,	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Balasore,	Orixa,	East India,	Asia	21-20 N.	86-05 E.
Bay of Biscay,	Coast of	France,	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Bay of Bengal,	Coast of	India,	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	America	39-35 S.	81-10 W.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-30 N.	37-00 E.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	41-26 N.	2-18 E.
Barbuda,	Isle,	Atlantic Ocean,	N. America	17-49 N.	61-55 W.
Basil,	Basil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-35 N.	7-34 E.
Bassora.	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	30-45 N.	47-00 E.
Bastia,	Corsica,	Italy,	Europe	42-20 N.	9-40 E.
Bath,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-22 N.	2-16 W.
Belfast,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	54-30 N.	6-30 W.
Bender,	Bassarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46-40 N.	29-00 E.
Bayeux,	Calvados,	France,	Europe	40-16 N.	00-47 E.
Berlin,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52-32 N.	13-31 E.
Bermudas,	Bermuda Isles,	Atlantic Ocean,	N. America	36-25 N.	63-23 W.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-00 N.	7-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwickshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	1-45 W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45-00 N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia	3-49 S.	102-05 E.
Batavia,	Java,	East India,	Asia	6-10 S.	106-56 E.
Basse Terre	Guadaloupe,	Caribbee Sea	N. America	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Bourdeaux,	Gironde	France,	Europe	44-50 N.	00-29 W.
Bayonne,	Lower Pyrenees,	France,	Europe	43-29 N.	1-25 W.
Borroughstonness,	Linlithgowshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	3-44 W.
Boston	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53-10 N.	00-25 E.
Boston,	New England,	North	America	42-25 N.	70-32 W.
Bolabola,	Isle,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-32 S.	151-47 W.
Bologne,	Straits of Calais,	France,	Europe	50-43 N.	1-31 E.
Bologna,	Bolognese,	Italy,	Europe	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
Bolscheriskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	52-54 N.	156-42 E.
Bombay,	Bombay Isle,	East India,	Asia	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
Bridge-town,	Barbadoes,	Atlantic Ocean,	N. America	13-05 N.	58-03 W.
Bilboa,	Biscay,	Spain,	Europe	43-26 N.	3-18 W.
Birmingham,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-30 N.	1-50 W.
Bockharia,	Usbec	Tartary,	Asia	39-15 N.	67-00 E.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-40 N.	4-40 E.
Brest,	Cape Finisterre,	France,	Europe	48-22 N.	4-25 W.
Bremen,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N.	8-20 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Bristol,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-33 N.	2-40 W.
Breslaw,	Silesia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51-03 N.	17-13 E.
Brussels,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-51 N.	4-26 E.
Buenos Ayres,	La Plata,	Brazil,	S. America	34-35 S.	58-26 W.
Bukarast,	Walachia,	Turkey,	Europe	44-26 N.	26-13 E.
British Sea,	between	Britain and Ger.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Black or Euxine Sea	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia		
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-16 N.	3-05 E.
Brunswick,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-30 N.	10-30 E.
Buda,	Lower	Hungary,	Europe	47-40 N.	19-20 E.
Burlington,	Jersey,	North	America	40-08 N.	75-00 W.
Bourbon Isle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-51 S.	55-25 E.
CAbello (Port)	Terra Firma,	South	America	10-03 N.	67-27 W.
Cadiz,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-31 N.	6-06 W.
Caen,	Calvados,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	6-10 W.
Cahors,	Lot,	France,	Europe	44-26 N.	1-31 E.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe	39-25 N.	9-38 E.
Cachao,	Tonquin,	East India,	Asia	21-30 N.	105-00 E.
Cairo,	Lower	Egypt,	Africa	30-02 N.	31-23 E.
Calais,	Straits of Calais,	France,	Europe	50-57 N.	1-55 E.
Callao,	Peru,	South	America	12-01 N.	76-53 W.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-34 N.	88-34 E.
Calmar,	Smaland,	Sweden,	Europe	56-40 N.	16-26 E.
Cambray,	Cambresis,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-10 N.	3-18 E.
Cambletown,	Argyleshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	5-40 W.
Cambridge,	Cambridgeshire,	England,	Europe	52-12 N.	0-09 E.
Cambridge,	New	England,	N. America	42-25 N.	71-05 W.
Canary, NE. point,	Canary Isles,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-13 N.	15-33 W.
Candia,	Candia Island,	Mediterranean Sea,	Europe	35-18 N.	25-23 E.
Canso Port,	Nova Scotia,	North	America	45-20 N.	60-50 W.
Cambodia.	Cambodia,	East India,	Asia	13-30 N.	105-00 E.
Canterbury,	Kent.	England,	Europe	51-16 N.	1-15 E.
Canton,	Canton,	China,	Asia	23-07 N.	113-07 E.
Carlescroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	56-20 N.	15-31 E.
Carthage ruins,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30 N.	9-00 E.
Carthagena,	Terra Firma,	South	America	10-26 N.	75-21 W.
Carthagena,	Murcia,	Spain.	Europe	37-37 N.	1-05 W.
Carlisle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-47 N.	2-35 W.
Cardigan	Cardiganshire,	Wales,	Europe	52-10 N.	4-38 W.
Candy,	Ceylon,	Indian Ocean,	Asia	7-54 N.	79-00 E.
Caspian Sea,	Russia,	Tartary,	Asia		
Casan,	Casan,	Siberia,	Asia	55-43 N.	49-13 E.
Cassel,	Hesse Cassel,	Germany,	Europe	51-19 N.	9-34 E.
Castres,	Tarne,	France,	Europe	43-37 N.	2-19 E.
St. Catharine's Isle,	Atlantic	Ocean,	S. America	27-35 S.	49-12 W.
Cavan,	Cavan,	Ireland,	Europe	54-51 N.	7-18 W.
Cayenne,	Cayenne Isle,	South	America	4-56 N.	52-10 W.
Cette,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-23 N.	3-17 E.
Chalons,	Saone and Loire,	France,	Europe	46-46 N.	4-56 E.
Chandernagor,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
Charlton,	Isle,	Hudson's Bay,	N. America	52-03 N.	79-00 W.
Chartres,	Eure and Loire,	France,	Europe	48-26 N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg,	North	France,	Europe	49-38 N.	1-38 W.
Christmas Sound,	Terra del Fuego,	South	America	55-21 N.	69-57 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
St. Christopher's Isle,	Carribean	Sea,	N. America	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Civita Vecchia,	Patro di S. Petro,	Italy,	Europe	42-05 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Isles,	Atlantic	Ocean,	S. America	55-05 S.	34-37 W.
Clermont,	Puy-de-dome,	France,	Europe	45-45 N.	3-10 E.
Colmar,	Upper Rhine,	France,	Europe	48-04 N.	7-27 E.
Cologne,	Elect. of Cologne,	Germany,	Europe	50-55 N.	7-10 E.
Cape Clear,	Irish sea,	Ireland,	Europe	51-18 N.	11-10 W.
——Comorin,	On this side the Ganges,	East India,	Asia	7-55 N.	78-10 E.
——Finisterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-51 N.	9-12 W.
——St. Vincent,	Algrave,	Portugal,	Europe	37-02 N.	8-57 W.
——of Good Hope,	Hottentots,	Caffraria,	Africa	34-29 S.	18-28 E.
——Florida,	East Florida,	North	America	24-57 N.	80-30 W.
——Verd,		Negroland,	Africa	14-45 N.	17-28 W.
——Horn,	Terra del Fuego isle,	South	America	55-58 S.	67-21 W.
Cattegate,	between	Sweden and Den.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Ceuta,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	35-04 N.	6-30 W.
Chester,	Cheshire,	England,	Europe	53-15 N.	0-03 W.
CHARLES-TOWN,	South Carolina,	North	America	32-45 N.	79-12 W.
COPENHAGEN,	Zealand Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
CONSTANTINOPLE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-01 N.	28-58 E.
Cork,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-53 N.	8-23 W.
Coventry,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-25 N.	1-25 W.
Constance,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-37 N.	9-12 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30 N.	23-00 E.
Cowes,	Isle of Wight,	England,	Europe	50-46 N.	1-14 W.
Cracow,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Cremsmunster,	Arch-duchy of Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-03 N.	14-12 E.
Curassau,	Curassau Isle,	West India,	America	11-56 N.	68-20 W.
Cusco,	Peru,	South	America	12-25 S.	70-00 W.
Cummin,	Isle,	N. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	31-40 N.	121-09 E.
Damascus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-15 N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic,	Polish Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-22 N.	18-38 E.
Decca,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	23-30 N.	89-20 E.
Delhi,	Delhi,	East India,	Asia	29-00 N.	76-30 E.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-06 N.	4-05 E.
Derbent,	Dagistan,	Persia,	Asia	41-41 N.	50-20 E.
Dax,	Landes,	France,	Europe	43-42 N.	0-58 W.
Dieppe,	Lower Seine,	France,	Europe	49-55 N.	0-59 E.
ijon,	Cote d'Or,	France,	Europe	47-19 N.	4-57 E.
isbingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	48-30 N.	10-19 E.
ol,	Ile and Vilaine,	France,	Europe	48-63 N.	1-41 W.
Dominique,	Windward Islands,	West India,	America	15-18 N.	1-22 W.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-07 N.	1-13 E.
Dreux,	Eure and Loire,	France,	Europe	48-44 N.	1-16 E.
Derby,	Derbyshire,	England,	Europe	52-58 N.	1-20 W.
Derry,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	54-52 N.	7-40 W.
Dieu,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-37 N.	69-30 E.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-00 N.	13-30 E.
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-26 N.	2-48 W.
DUBLIN,	Leinster,	Ireland,	Europe	53-21 N.	6-01 W.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-48 N.	1-35 W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-44 N.	4-30 W.
Dungeness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	50-52 N.	1-04 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-02 N.	2-27 E.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	2-25 W.
Dumfries,	Dumfriesshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-08 N.	3-25 W.
English Channel,	between	Eng. and France,	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Eastern Ocean,	betw. the NW. of	N. America and NE. of Asia		North Pacific Ocean.	
Ephesus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-01 N.	27-30 E.
Eaoowe Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	21-24 S.	174-25 W.
Easter Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	America	27-06 S.	109-41 W.
Edinburg,	Edinburgshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-57 N.	3-07 W.
Edystone,	English Channel,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	4-19 W.
Enebrun,	Upper Alps,	France,	Europe	44-34 N.	6-34 E.
Enatum Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	20-10 S.	169-59 E.
Esbing,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-15 N.	20-00 E.
Embden,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N.	7-10 E.
Erramanga Isle	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	18-46 S.	169-23 E.
Erzerum,	Turcomania,	Turkey,	Asia	39-56 N.	42-05 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coast of	Guinea,	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Eustatius,	Caribbean Sea,	West India,	N. America	17-29 N.	63-05 W.
Evereux,	Eure	France,	Europe	49-01 N.	1-13 E.
Exeter,	Devonshire	England,	Europe	50-44 N.	3-29 W.
Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	4-57 W.
Falkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	3-48 W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33-30 N.	6-00 W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-30 N.	8-40 W.
Fayal Town,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-32 N.	28-36 W.
Ferdinand Naronka,		Brazil,	S. America	3-56 S.	32-43 W.
Ferrara,	Ferrarese,	Italy,	Europe	44-54 N.	11-41 E.
Ferro (Town)	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	27-47 N.	17-40 W.
Florence,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-46 N.	11-07 E.
Flores,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	39-34 N.	30-51 W.
St. Flour,	Cantal,	France,	Europe	45-01 N.	3-10 E.
France (Isle of)	Indian	Ocean,	Africa	10-09 S.	57-33 E.
Franckfort on the Main,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-55 N.	8-40 E.
Frawenburg,	Polish	Prussia,	Europe	54-22 N.	20-12 E.
Fuego Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	14-56 N.	24-23 W.
Funchal,	Madeira,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Furneau Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	17-11 S.	143-01 W.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	12-05 N.	80-55 E.
Gap,	Upper Alps,	France,	Europe	44-33 N.	6-09 E.
Genes,	Savoy,	Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	8-40 E.
Geneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-12 N.	6-05 E.
St. George Isle,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-55 W.
Genoa,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	8-30 E.
Gibraltar,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-05 N.	5-17 W.
St. George Town,	Bermudas,	Atlantic Ocean,	N. America	32-45 N.	63-30 W.
St. George Fort,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-03 N.	3-43 E.
Glasgow,	Lanerkshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-51 N.	4-10 W.
Goa,	Malabar,	East India,	Asia	15-31 N.	73-50 E.
Guat Isle,	Indian	Ocean,	Asia	13-55 N.	120-07 E.
Gomera Isle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-05 N.	17-03 W.
Good Hope Town,	Hottentots,	Caffres,	Africa	33-55 S.	18-23 E.
Gores,	Atlantic	Ocean,	Africa	14-40 N.	17-20 W.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	57-42 N.	11-43 E.
Gottingen,	Hanover,	Germany,	Europe	51-31 N.	9-56 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Granville,	Channel,	France,	Europe	48-50 N.	1-32 W.
Gratiosa,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	39-02 N.	27-53 W.
Gratz,	Stiria,	Germany,	Europe	47-04 N.	15-29 E.
Gravelines,	French Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-59 N.	2-13 E.
Gryphiswald,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-04 N.	13-43 E.
Guadaloupe,	Caribbean	Sea,	N. America	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Gloucester,	Gloucestershire,	England,	Europe	51-05 N.	2-16 W.
Gombroon,	Farsistan,	Persia,	Asia	27-30 N.	74-20 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-52 N.	4-22 W.
Guam,	Ladrone Isles,	East India,	Asia	14-00 N.	140-30 E.
Gulf of Bothnia,	Coast of	Sweden,	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
—— of Finland,	between	Swed. and Russia,	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
—— of Venice,	between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
—— of Ormus,	between	Persia and Arabia,	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
—— of Persia,	between	Persia and Arabia,	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
—— of California,	between	Calif. and Mexico,	N. America	Pacific Ocean.	
—— of St. Lawr.	Coast of	New Scotland,	N. America	Atlantic Ocean.	
—— of Mexico,	Coast of	Mexico,	N. America	Atlantic Ocean.	
HAgue,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-04 N.	4-22 E.
Hamburg,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	53-34 N.	9-55 E.
Hastings,	Sussex,	England,	Europe	50-52 N.	0-40 E.
Halifax,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	55-47 N.	1-52 W.
HALIFAX,	Nova Scotia,	North	America	44-40 N.	63-15 W.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-33 N.	9-35 E.
Havannah,	Cuba	Island,	N. America	23-11 N.	2-13 W.
Havre de Grace,	Seine,	France,	Europe	49-29 N.	1-10 E.
La Heese	Dutch Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-55 N.	4-50 E.
Hellespont,	Med. and Bl. Sea,	Europe and	Asia		
St. Helena,	South	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	15-55 S.	5-44 W.
Hernosand,	West Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	62-38 N.	17-58 E.
Hervey's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-17 S.	158-43 W.
Haerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-20 N.	4-10 E.
Hereford,	Herefordshire,	England,	Europe	52-06 N.	2-38 W.
Hoai-Nghan,	Kian-Nan,	China,	Asia	33-34 N.	118-54 E.
La Hogue Cape,	Channel,	France,	Europe	49-44 N.	1-51 W.
Hood's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-26 S.	138-47 W.
Hoogstraten,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-24 N.	4-52 E.
Howe's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-46 S.	154-01 W.
Huahine Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-44 S.	151-01 W.
Hull,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	0-12 W.
Hudson's Bay,	Coast of	Labrador,	N. America	North Atlantic Ocean.	
JAkutskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	62-01 N.	129-52 E.
Janeira Rio,		Brasil,	S. America	22-54 S.	42-38 W.
Jassy,	Moldavia,	Turkey,	Europe	47-08 N.	27-34 E.
Java Head,	Java Isle,	East India,	Asia	6-49 S.	106-55 E.
Jeddo,	Japan Isle,	East India,	Asia	36-20 N.	139-00 E.
Jerusalem,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	31-55 N.	35-25 E.
Immer Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-10 S.	169-51 E.
Ingolstadt,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-45 N.	11-27 E.
St. John's Town,	Antigua,	Leeward Isles,	N. America	17-04 N.	62-04 E.
St. John's Town,	Newfoundland,	North	America	47-32 N.	52-21 W.
St. Joseph's,	California,	Mexico,	N. America	23-03 N.	109-37 W.
Israpame Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-31 S.	170-26 E.
Islamabad,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-20 N.	91-50 E.
Isle of Pines,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-38 S	167-43 E.
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Persia,	Asia	32-25 N.	52-55 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Judda,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	21-29 N.	49-27 E.
Juthria,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Inverness,	Inverness-shire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-33 N.	4-02W.
Ivica isle,	Mediterranean Sea,	Italy,	Europe	38-50 N.	1-10 E.
Isthmus of Suez,	joins Africa to Asia.				
——— of Corinth,	joins the Morea to Greece,		Europe		
——— of Panama,	joins North and South America.				
——— of Malacca,	joins Malacca to farther India,		Asia		
Irish Sea,	between	G. Brit. and Ire.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Indian Ocean,	Coast of	India,	Asia		
Kamtschatka,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	57-20 N.	163-00 E.
Kedgere,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	21-48 N.	88-55 E.
Kelso,	Roxboroughshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	2-12W.
Kilmarnock,	Airshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	0-30W.
Kinsale,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-32 N.	8-20W.
Kingston,	Jamaica,	West India,	America	18-15 N.	76-38W.
Kiow,	Ukraine,	Russia,	Europe	50-30 N.	31-13 E.
Kola,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe	68-52 N.	33-13 E.
Koningsberg,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-43 N.	21-35 E.
Lancaster,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	54-05 N.	2-45 E.
Levant Sea,	Coast of	Syria,	Asia	Mediterranean Sea.	
Laguna,	Teneriffe,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean	28-28 N.	16-13W.
Land,	Lower Rhine,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	8-02 E.
Landscroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	55-52 N.	12-51 E.
Lausanne,	Canton of Vaud,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-31 N.	6-56 E.
Leeds,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-48 N.	1-29W.
Leicester,	Leicestershire,	England,	Europe	52-38 N.	1-03W.
Leipsic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-19 N.	12-25 E.
Leper's Island,	South Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	15-23 S.	168-03 E.
Leskard,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-26 N.	4-36W.
Lesparre,	Gironde,	France,	Europe	45-18 N.	0-52W.
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-10 N.	4-32 E.
Leith,	Edinburghshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	3-00W.
Lahor,	Lahor,	East India,	Asia	32-40 N.	75-30 E.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-56 N.	3-30W.
Lincoln,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53-15 N.	0-27W.
Lima,	Peru,	South	America	12-01 S.	76-44W.
Liege,	Bishopric of Liege,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37 N.	5-40 E.
Limoges,	Upper Vienne,	France,	Europe	45-49 N.	1-20 E.
Lintz,	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	41-16 N.	13-57 E.
Lisle,	French Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37 N.	3-09 E.
Lisbon,	Estremadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38-42 N.	9-04W.
Lizard Point,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	49-57 N.	5-10W.
Louisburg,	Cape Breton Isle,	North	America	45-53 N.	59-48W.
Limerick,	Limerickshire,	Ireland,	Europe	52-35 N.	8-48W.
Litchfield,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52-43 N.	1-04W.
Loretto,	Pope's Territory,	Italy,	Europe	43-15 N.	14-15 E.
London,	Middlesex,	England,	Europe	51-31 N.	1st Merid.
Londonderry,	Londonderry,	Ireland,	Europe	50-00 N.	7-40W.
Louveau,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	12-42 N.	100-56 E.
Louvain,	Austrian Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-53 N.	4-49 E.
Lubec,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	54-00 N.	11-40 E.
St. Lucia Isle,	Windward Isles,	West Indies,	N. America	13-24 N.	60-46W.
Lunden,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	55-41 N.	13-26 E.
Luneville,	Meurthe,	France,	Europe	48-35 N.	6-35 E.
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands,	Europe	49-37 N.	6-16 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Latitude. D. M.	Longitude. D. M.
Lyons,	Rhone and Loire,	France,	Europe	45-45 N.	4-54 E.
Macao,	Canton,	China,	Asia	22-12 N.	113-51 E.
Macassar,	Celebes Isle,	East India,	Asia	5-09 S.	119-53 E.
Madeira, Funchal,	Atlantic	Ocean,	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Madras,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
MADRID,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	40-25 N.	3-40 E.
Magdalena Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	10-25 S.	138-44 W.
Mahon Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterranean Sea,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Majorca	Isle,	Mediterranean Sea,	Europe	39-35 N.	2-34 E.
Malacca,	Malacca,	East India,	Asia	2-12 N.	102-10 E.
Malines,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-01 N.	4-33 E.
Malicola Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-15 N.	167-44 E.
St. Malues,	Morbihan,	France,	Europe	48-38 N.	1-56 W.
Malta Isle,	Mediterranean	Sea,	Africa	35-54 N.	14-33 E.
Manilla,	Luconia, Phil. Isl.	East India,	Asia	14-36 N.	120-58 E.
MANTUA,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45-20 N.	10-47 E.
Maregalante Isle,	Atlantic	Ocean,	S. America	15-55 N.	61-06 W.
Marseilles,	Mouths of Rhone,	France,	Europe	43-17 N.	5-27 E.
St. Martha,	St. Martha,	Terra Firma,	America	11-26 N.	75-59 W.
St. Martin's Isle,	Caribbean Isles,	West India,	America	18-04 N.	63-57 W.
Martinico Isle,	Caribbean Isles,	West India,	America	14-44 N.	61-05 W.
St. M—'s Isle,	Scilly Isles,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	49-57 N.	6-33 W.
St. Mary's Town,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	36-56 N.	25-06 W.
Mataloyne Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-32 S.	148-04 E.
Mauritius,	Indian	Ocean,	Africa	20-09 S.	57-34 E.
Mauroa Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-25 S.	152-37 E.
Mayence,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-54 N.	8-25 E.
Mayo Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	15-10 N.	23-00 W.
Meaux,	Seine and Marne,	France,	Europe	48-57 N.	2-57 E.
Medina,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	25-00 N.	39-35 E.
Mecca,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	21-45 N.	41-00 E.
Mediterranean Sea,	between	Europe and	Africa	Atlantic Ocean	
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-30 N.	6-00 E.
MESSINA,	Sicily Island,	Italy,	Europe	38-30 N.	15-40 E.
Mergui,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	12-12 N.	98-13 E.
Mexico,	Mexico,	North	America	19-54 N.	100-06 W.
Milford Haven,	Pembrokeshire,	Wales,	Europe	51-43 N.	5-15 W.
Mitea Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-52 S.	148-01 W.
St. Michael's Isle,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	37-47 N.	25-37 W.
Middleburg Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-20 S.	174-29 W.
MILAN,	Milanese,	Italy,	Europe	45-25 N.	9-30 E.
Mocha,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	13-40 N.	43-50 E.
MODENA,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe	44-34 N.	11-17 E.
Montreal,	Canada,	North	America	45-35 N.	73-11 W.
Montpelier,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-36 N.	3-57 E.
Montrose,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-34 N.	2-28 W.
Montague Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-26 S.	168-35 E.
Montserrat Isle,	Caribbean Isle,	West India,	America	16-47 N.	62-13 W.
MOROCCO,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa	30-32 N.	6-18 W.
Moscow,	Moscow,	Russia,	Europe	55-45 N.	37-50 E.
Munich,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-09 N.	11-35 E.
Munster,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52-00 N.	7-10 E.
Narva,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	59-00 N.	27-55 E.
Nanci,	Meurthe,	France,	Europe	48-41 N.	6-10 E.
Nanking,	Kiangan,	China,	Asia	32-10 N.	181-00 E.
Namur,	Namur,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-28 N.	4-49 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Latitude. D. M.	Longitude. D. M.
Nangasachi,	Japan,	N. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	32-32 N.	182-51 E.
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	40-50 N.	14-18 E.
Nantes,	Lower Loire,	France,	Europe	47-13 N.	1-28 W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43-41 N.	7-22 E.
Newport,	Rhode Island,	North	America	41-35 N.	71-06 W.
Nieuport,	Flanders	Netherlands,	Europe	51-07 N.	2-50 E.
New York,	New York,	North	America	40-40 N.	74-00 W.
Nineveh,	Curdistan,	Turkey,	Asia	36-00 N.	45-00 E.
St. Nich. Mole	Hispaniola,	West India,	America	19-49 N.	73-24 W.
Newcastle,	Northumberland,	England,	Europe	55-03 N.	1-24 W.
Ningpo,	Chekiang,	China,	Asia	29-57 N.	120-23 E.
Norfolk Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	29-01 S.	168-15 E.
Noriton,	Pennsylvania,	North	America	40-09 N.	75-18 W.
North Cape,	Wardhus,	Lapland,	Europe	71-10 N.	26-02 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamshire,	England,	Europe	53-00 N.	1-06 W.
Northampton,	Northamptonshire,	England,	Europe	52-15 N.	0-55 W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-40 N.	1-25 E.
Nuremberg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-27 N.	11-12 E.
Olmutz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49-30 N.	16-45 E.
Ochotskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	59-20 N.	143-17 E.
Ohevahoa Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-40 S.	138-50 W.
Ohitahoo Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-55 S.	139-01 W.
Oleron Isle,	Lower Charente,	France,	Europe	46-02 N.	1-20 W.
Olympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30 N.	22-00 E.
Olinde,	Brazil,	South	America	8-13 S.	35-00 W.
Onateayo Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-58 S.	138-40 W.
Oporto,	Duoro,	Portugal,	Europe	41-10 N.	8-22 W.
Orenburg,	Tartary,	Russia,	Asia	51-46 N.	55-14 E.
Orleans,	Loiret,	France,	Europe	47-54 N.	1-59 E.
Orleans (New)	Louisiana,	North	America	29-57 N.	89-53 W.
Orotava,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-23 N.	16-19 W.
Ormus,	Ormicos Isle,	Persia,	Asia	26-50 N.	57-00 E.
Orsk,	Tartary,	Russia,	Asia	51-12 N.	58-37 E.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30 N.	0-05 E.
Osnaburg Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-52 S.	148-01 E.
Ostend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	3-00 E.
Oxford Observ.	Oxfordshire,	England,	Europe	51-45 N.	1-10 W.
St. Omer's,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-14 N.	2-19 E.
l'Orient (Port)	Morbihan,	France,	Europe	47-45 N.	3-20 W.
Pacific Ocean,	between	Asia and	America		
Padua,	Paduano,	Italy,	Europe	45-22 N.	12-00 E.
Paisley,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	4-08 W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe	38-30 N.	13-43 E.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-00 N.	39-00 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	S. America	8-47 N.	80-16 W.
Palliser's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38 S.	146-25 W.
Palma Isle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-36 N.	17-45 W.
Palmerston's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	18-00 S.	163-52 W.
Paoom Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-30 S.	168-33
PARIS	Paris,	France,	Europe	48-50 N.	2-25
Patrixfiord,	Iceland,	N. Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	65-35 N.	14-05 W.
Parma,	Parmesan,	Italy,	Europe	44-45 N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	East Indies,	Asia	25-45 N.	83-00 E.
Pau,	Lower Pyrences,	France,	Europe	43-15 N.	0-04 W.
St. Paul's Isle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	37-51 S.	77-53 E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	East India,	Asia	17-00 N.	97-00 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Peking,	Petchi-li,	China,	Asia	39-54 N.	116-29 E.
St. Peter's Fort,	Martinico,	West India,	N. America	14-44 N.	61-16W.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeshire,	Wales,	Europe	51-45 N.	4-50W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	6-00W.
PENSACOLA,	West Florida,	North	America	30-22 N.	87-20W.
Perigueux,	Dordogne,	France,	Europe	45-11 N.	0-48 E.
Perinaldi,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53 N.	7-45 E.
Perth,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-22 N.	3-12W.
Perth-amboy,	New York,	North	America	40-30 N.	74-20W.
St. Peter's Isle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	America	46-46 N.	56-12W.
Persepolis,	Irac Agem,	Persia,	Asia	30-30 N.	54-00 E.
Petropawloskoi,	Kamtschatka,	Russia,	Asia	53-01 N.	158-40 E.
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Russia,	Europe	59-56 N.	30-24 E.
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,	North	America	39-56 N.	75-09W.
St. Philip's Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterranean Sea,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Pickersgill Isle,	South	Atlantic Ocean,	America	54-42 S.	36-53W.
Pico,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-28 N.	28-21W.
Pines, Isle of,	North Carolina,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
Pisa,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-43 N.	10-17 E.
Placentia,	Newfoundland Isle,	North	America	47-26 N.	55-00W.
Plymouth,	Devonshire,	England	Europe	50-22 N.	4-10W.
Plymouth,	New England,	North	America	41-48 N.	70-25W.
Pollingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-48 N.	10-48 E.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	11-41 N.	79-57 E.
Ponoi,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe	67-06 N.	30-28 E.
Porto Bello,	Terra Firma,	South	America	9-33 N.	79-45W.
Porto Sancto Isle,	Madeira,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	32-51 N.	16-20W.
Port Royal,	Jamaica,	West India,	America	18-00 N.	76-40W.
Port Royal,	Martinico,	West India,	America	14-35 N.	61-04W.
Portsmouth Town,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-47 N.	1-01W.
——— Academy,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-48 N.	1-01W.
Portsmouth,	New England,	North	America	53-10 N.	70-20W.
Portland Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	39-25 S.	178-17 E.
Portland Isle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	63-22 N.	18-49W.
Prague,		Bohemia,	Europe	50-04 N.	14-50 E.
Pr. of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America	58-47 N.	94-02W.
Portosi,	Peru,	South	America	21-00 S.	77-00W.
Providence,	New England,	North	America	41-50 N.	71-21W.
Preston,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	2-50W.
Presburg,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe	48-20 N.	17-30W.
Pulo Candor Isle,	Indian Ocean,	East Indies,	Asia	28-40 N.	107-25 E.
Pulo Timor Isle,	Gulf of Siam,	East India,	Asia	03-00 N.	104-30 E.
Rylestaurt Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-23 S.	175-26W.
Quebec,	Canada,	North	America	46-35 N.	69-18W.
St. Quintin,	North Coast,	France,	Europe	49-50 N.	3-22 E.
Quito,	Peru,	South	America	0-13 S.	77-50W.
Q. Charlotte's Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	10-11 S.	164-35 E.
Ramberd,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-18 N.	4-15W.
Ragusa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe	42-45 N.	18-25 E.
Ratisbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-56 N.	12-05 E.
Recif,	Brasil,	South	America	8-10 S.	35-30W.
Rennes,	Ile and Vilaine,	France,	Europe	48-06 N.	1-36W.
Resolution Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-23 S.	141-40W.
Rhe Isle,	Lower Charente,	France,	Europe	46-14 N.	1-20W.
Rheims,	Marne,	France,	Europe	49-14 N.	4-07 E.
Rhodes,	Rhode Island,	Levant Sea,	Asia	36-20 N.	28-00 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Riga,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	56-55 N.	24-00 E.
Rimini,	Romagna,	Italy,	Europe	44-03 N.	12-39 E.
Rochelle,	Lower Charente,	France,	Europe	46-09 N.	1-04 W.
Rochfort,	Lower Charente,	France,	Europe	46-02 N.	0-55 W.
Rock of Lisbon,	Mouth of Tagus riv.	Portugal,	Europe	38-45 N.	9-30 W.
Rodez,	Aveiron,	France,	Europe	44-21 N.	2-39 E.
Roderigues Isle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	10-40 N.	63-15 E.
Rome (St. Peter's)	Pope's Territory,	Italy,	Europe	41-53 N.	12-34 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-56 N.	4-33 E.
Rotterdam Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	20-16 N.	174-24 W.
Rouen,	Lower Seine,	France,	Europe	49-26 N.	1-00 W.
St. Augustin,	East Florida,	North	America	29-45 N.	81-12 W.
—— Domingo,	Caribbean Sea,	West India,	America	18-20 N.	70-00 W.
—— Jago,	Chili,	South	America	34-00 S.	77-00 W.
—— Salvador,	Brasil,	South	America	11-58 S.	38-00 W.
Saba Isle,	Caribbean Sea,	West India,	America	17-39 N.	63-12 W.
Sagan,	Silesia,	Germany,	Europe	51-42 N.	15-27 E.
Sall Isle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	13-48 N.	22-51 W.
Salonichi,	Macedonia,	Turkey,	Europe	40-41 N.	23-13 E.
Salvage Isles,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	30-00 N.	15-49 W.
Samana,	Hispaniolia,	West India,	America	19-15 N.	69-11 W.
Samarcand,	Usbec	Tartary,	Asia	40-40 N.	69-00 E.
Salisbury,	Wiltshire,	England,	Europe	51-00 N.	1-45 W.
Santa Cruz,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-27 N.	16-11 W.
Sandwich Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-41 S.	168-38 E.
Santa Fe,	New Mexico,	North	America	36-00 N.	105-00 W.
Savannah,	Georgia,	North	America	31-55 N.	80-20 W.
Snider's Isle,	South Georgia,	S. Atlantic Ocean,	S. America	58-00 S.	26-53 W.
Savage Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-02 S.	169-52 W.
Sayd, or Thebes,	Upper	Egypt,	Africa	27-00 N.	32-20 E.
Samaria Ruins,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	32-40 N.	38-00 E.
St. George's Chan.	between	England and Ire.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Scarborough,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	54-18 N.	0-10 W.
Scone,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-24 N.	3-10 W.
Schwezingen,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-23 N.	8-45 E.
Sea of Azoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and	Asia		
—— Marmora,	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia	Black Sea.	
—— Ochotsk,	between Siberia and	Kamtschatka,	Asia	N. Pacific Ocean	
—— Yellow	between Eastern	Tartary, China, and Corea,		N. Pacific Ocean.	
Sedan,	Ardennes.	France,	Europe	49-44 N.	5-02 E.
Senegal,		Negroland,	Africa	15-53 N.	16-26 W.
Shepherd's Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-58 S.	168-47 E.
Siam,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Si-gham-fu,	Chensi,	China,	Asia	34-16 N.	108-48 E.
Sisteron,	Lower Alps,	France,	Europe	44-11 N.	6-01 W.
Shrewsbury,	Shropshire,	England,	Europe	52-43 N.	2-46 W.
Shields (South)	Durham,	England,	Europe	55-02 N.	1-15 E.
Sheerness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-25 N.	0-50 E.
Seville,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	37-15 N.	6-05 W.
Sidon,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	33-33 N.	36-15 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-28 N.	27-24 E.
Southampton,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-55 N.	1-25 W.
Sombayera Isles,	Caribbean Sea,	West India,	N. America	18-38 N.	63-32 W.
Soolo Isle,	Philippine Isles,	East India,	Asia	5-57 N.	121-20 E.
Spaw,	Liege,	Germany,	Europe	50-30 N.	5-40 E.
Sound,	between	Den. and Sweden,	Europe	Baltic Sea.	

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Stafford,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52-50 N.	2-09W.
Sterling,	Sterlingshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-10 N.	3-50W.
Stralsund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-23 N.	13-22 E.
Strasburg,	Lower Rhine,	France,	Europe	48-34 N.	7-46 E.
Stockholm,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-20 N.	18-08 E.
Straits of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
——— Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
——— Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
——— Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.					
——— Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
——— Magellan, between Terra del Fuego and Patagonia, South America.					
——— La Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.					
——— Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
——— Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.					
Straumness,	Iceland,	N. Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	65-39 N.	21-24W.
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29-56 N.	32-27 E.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-55 N.	1-10W.
Surinam,	Surinam,	South	America	6-00 N.	55-30W.
Surat,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-10 N.	72-27 E.
Syracuse,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe	36-58 N.	5-05 E.
TAble Island,	New Hebrides,	S. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38 S.	167-12 E.
Tanna,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-32 S.	169-46 E.
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	East India,	Asia	11-27 N.	79-07 E.
Tauris	Aderbeitzan,	Persia,	Asia	38-20 N.	46-30 E.
Taoukaa Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	14-30 S.	145-04W.
Temontengis,	Soloo,	East India,	Asia	5-57 N.	120-58 E.
Teneriffe Peak,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-12 N.	16-24W.
Tercera,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-45 N.	27-01W.
St. Thomas's Isle,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-21 N.	64-26W.
Timor, SW. Point,		East India,	Asia	10-23 S.	124-04 E.
Timorland, S. Point,		East India,	Asia	8-15 S.	131-59 E.
Thorn,	Regal Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	52-56 N.	19-00W.
Tertuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-10 N.	5-18W.
Teflis,	Georgia,	Persia,	Asia	43-30 N.	47-00 E.
Tobolski	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	58-12 N.	68-17 E.
Tomsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	56-29 N.	85-04 E.
Toulon,	Var,	France,	Europe	43-07 N.	6-01 E.
Toledo,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-25 E.
Tonga Tabu Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174-41W.
Trapesond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	41-50 N.	40-30 E.
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46-05 N.	11-02 E.
Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	39-30 N.	26-30 E.
Tornea,	Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	65-50 N.	24-17 E.
Tripoli,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	32-53 N.	13-12 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	34-30 N.	36-15 E.
Tunis,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-47 N.	10-00 E.
Turin,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	45-05 N.	7-45 E.
Tyre,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	32-32 N.	36-00 E.
Turtle Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-48 S.	178-02W.
Tyrnaw,	Trentschin,	Hungary,	Europe	48-23 N.	17-58 E.
ULietea,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-45 S.	151-26W.
Upsal,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-51 N.	17-47 E.
Uraniberg,	Huen Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-54 N.	12-57 E.
Ushant Isle,	Finisterre,	France,	Europe	48-28 N.	4-59W.
Utrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-07 N.	5-00 E.
Venice,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45-26 N.	11-59 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Latitude* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Vera Cruz,	Mexico,	North	America	19-12 N.	97-25 W.
Verona,	Veronese,	Italy,	Europe	45-26 N.	11-23 E.
Versailles,	Seine and Oise,	France,	Europe	48-48 N.	2-12 E.
Vienna Observ.	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-12 N.	16-22 E.
Vigo,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-14 N.	8-23 W.
Vintimiglia,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53 N.	7-42 E.
Virgin Gorda,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-18 N.	63-59 W.
Wurtzburg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-46 N.	10-18 E.
Wakefield,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-41 N.	1-28 W
Pr. of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Wardhus,	Norw. Lapland,	Lapland,	Europe	70-22 N.	31-11 E.
Warsaw,	Massovia,	Poland,	Europe	52-14 N.	21-05 E.
Westman Isles,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	63-20 N.	20-22 W.
Whitsuntide Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-44 S.	168-25 E.
Warwick,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-18 N.	1-32 W.
Waterford,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	52-12 N.	7-16 W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-38 N.	3-36 W.
Williamsburg,	Virginia,	North	America	37-12 N.	76-48 W.
Wells,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-12 N.	2-40 W.
Winchester,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	51-06 N.	1-15 W.
Worms,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-38 N.	8-05 E.
Worcester,	Worcestershire,	England,	Europe	52-09 N.	1-55 W.
Willes's Isles,	South Georgia,	Atlantic Ocean,	America	54-00 S.	38-24 W.
Wilna,	Lithuania,	Poland,	Europe	54-41 N.	25-32 E.
Wittenburg,	Upper Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-49 N.	12-46 E.
Wologda,	Wologda,	Russia,	Europe	59-19 N.	41-50 E.
Woslak,		Russia,	Europe	61-15 N.	42-20 E.
Yarmouth,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-45 N.	1-48 E.
York,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-59 N.	1-01 W.
Yorminster,	Terra del Fuego,	South	America	55-26 N.	70-03 W.

Greenwich Observatory, Kent, England, Europe, 51° 28′ 40″ N. 0° 5′ 37″ E. of St. Paul's, London.

A

GENERAL VIEW

OF

THE WORLD,

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL,

AND

PHILOSOPHICAL;

ON A PLAN ENTIRELY NEW;

IN TWO VOLUMES.

BY THE REV. E. BLOMFIELD.

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